ACTUAL BUSINESS ENGLISH

DEFFENDALL

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ACTUAL BUSINESS ENGLISH

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ACTUAL BUSINESS ENGLISH

BY

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EXERCISES IN ACTUAL EVERYDAY ENGLISH, etc.

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EDITOR'S INTRODUCTION

For more than a generation, authors of text books on English have called their books by the title *Business English.* So far as I know, no one previous to Mr. Deffendall has dared actually to do what is implied in the title.

In *Actual Business English* every illustrative sentence is taken from business; every usage recommended is a business usage; every modern detail taught is a detail necessary to business letter writing; and every antiquated detail ignored is a detail that the business office of today also ignores.

The usual text labeled *Business English* begins with illustrations taken from the classics and ends with them. This book is different. Mr. Deffendall's sentences and paragraphs come hot from Wanamaker, Packard, Goodyear, and others who pay men to do what Mr. Deffendall is trying to train the student to do. No such sentences as "The lowing herd wind slowly o'er the lea," appear in his work. This is not because such sentences are not beautiful and correct, but because "The growing company moved into a new building," suits Mr. Deffendall's purpose better, and has a stronger appeal to enthusiastic commercial students. That the author has actually done what his title promises, is the first thing that stands out from the pages of this book.

The second really notable thing Mr. Deffendall has done is scientifically to select and arrange the common errors of speech with the corrected forms. These errors are no mere hodge-podge of incorrect phrases presented for haphazard study. With careful, painstaking scholarship, the author has compiled lists of the common vulgarisms, colloquialisms, and grammatical blunders of American speech. He has used Dr. Charters' *Study of Pupils' Errors*, and other similar studies, besides a list of his own, gathered from years of experience as an instructor in English.

There is much that is true in the old saying that to correct a man's grammatical errors you must begin with his grandparents. If young people constantly hear ungrammatical language at home, the teacher can do little for them. But as much as a teacher can do, the author has done in this book. He has given the most carefully selected list of such errors that has ever been compiled; he has shown the correct forms; he has, when necessary, explained the reasons for these correct forms; and in all cases, he has demanded practice of the pupil and has put him to a test in an exercise *at the end of the same lesson.* Moreover, he has presented each error at the exact time when in the student's progress it can best be corrected—that is, when the preceding lesson or lessons have shown the correct usage in the specific case that is being studied.

Few texts present for correction so well chosen a list of habitual errors. No other text presents them in so scientific and systematic a manner. It is likely that Mr. Deffendall's success in this connection is due to his realization that *the number of such errors is small,* as has been clearly

shown by a scientific analysis of them through a period of years.

The teaching of correct English, which is the main object of the book, is preceded by a review and restatement of the essentials of grammar, in which that dread study is stripped of the complicated rules that modern instruction has shown to be unnecessary. What is given of grammar is the part that is vital to correct English as required by the modern business office. What is omitted is the vast, complicated machinery of hair-splitting rules and their still more intricate exceptions. For the practical purposes of every-day speech, these are shown by the author to be unnecessary, for he has accomplished his purpose without them.

The art of putting correct words together in sensible sentences begins with the study of the word and then proceeds through the study of the sentence, the paragraph, and the whole composition. By a gradual process, Mr. Deffendall skillfully brings the student up to the study of letter writing, leaving him prepared for definite and positive progress toward the mastery of that well-paid accomplishment.

His treatment of punctuation, one mark at a time, is as simple and thorough as his handling of the problem of the correct word.

Unity, clearness, and emphasis are taught as well as correctness. The writer's aim has been to teach the student to write material that wins, the kind of plain writing that has force, that sells goods, that explains difficulties, that admits of no misunderstandings, that gets results. All

topics for the student's written work are drawn from real business situations. All the terms that are used are correct, modern business terms.

The book is clear, forcible, brief, and comprehensive. It is for the average person who wants to learn to use business English effectively. Its slogan is "Business Usage." Its method is direct instruction with suitable exercises applied to each step. It is, as its title implies, *Actual Business English.*

HARLAN EUGENE READ

CONTENTS

LESSON		PAGE
ONE	A Necessary First Step	1
TWO	Nouns — The Formation of Plurals	7
THREE	The Formation of the Possessive	11
FOUR	Nouns Commonly Confused	14
FIVE	How to Use the Personal Pronouns Correctly	19
SIX	How to Use the Pronouns Correctly (*Continued*)	24
SEVEN	How to Use the Pronouns Correctly (*Continued*)	26
EIGHT	Relative Pronouns	30
NINE	Troublesome Verbs	34
TEN	Troublesome Verbs (*Continued*)	42
ELEVEN	Special Use of *Were*	45
TWELVE	*Shall* and *Will*	47
THIRTEEN	Agreement	51
FOURTEEN	Agreement (*Continued*)	55
FIFTEEN	Verbs Commonly Confused	58
SIXTEEN	Adjectives and Adverbs	64
SEVENTEEN	Adjectives and Adverbs (*Continued*)	69
EIGHTEEN	Confusion of Adjectives and Adverbs	72
NINETEEN	Comparison	77
TWENTY	Similar Adjectives and Adverbs Distinguished	81
TWENTY-ONE	How to Use Prepositions Correctly	89
TWENTY-TWO	How to Use Conjunctions Correctly	95
TWENTY-THREE	Sentence Structure: The Simple Sentence	99
TWENTY-FOUR	Sentence Structure: The Complex Sentence	103
TWENTY-FIVE	Sentence Structure: The Compound Sentence	106
TWENTY-SIX	Punctuation	109
TWENTY-SEVEN	Punctuation (*Continued*)	113

LESSON		PAGE
TWENTY-EIGHT	Punctuation (*Continued*)	118
TWENTY-NINE	Punctuation (*Continued*)	121
THIRTY	Special Cases of Punctuation	129
THIRTY-ONE	Capitalization	136
THIRTY-TWO	Abbreviations	141
THIRTY-THREE	Unity of the Sentence	145
THIRTY-FOUR	Clearness in the Sentence	151
THIRTY-FIVE	Emphasis in the Sentence	156
THIRTY-SIX	The Paragraph	166
THIRTY-SEVEN	Unity of the Paragraph	173
THIRTY-EIGHT	Clearness in the Paragraph	177
THIRTY-NINE	Emphasis in the Paragraph	184
FORTY	The Whole Composition	190
	Good Usage Drills	200

ACTUAL BUSINESS ENGLISH

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LESSON ONE

A Necessary First Step

Business English — what is it? Hardly different indeed from any other English except in its application to business forms, customs, and usages. Once quite technical and legal in expression, it is now becoming simpler, more direct, and more personal.

One of the chief requisites for success in business is the ability to speak and write correct and effective English. What chance of success, for example, has the salesman who says "I ain't," "I seen," and "between you and I"? By his ignorance of English he weakens your confidence in his general ability. As a commercial asset, the study of business English is of the utmost importance.

In the following lessons you will study good English usage and will be required to apply your knowledge of it in carefully selected drills and exercises. As a necessary first step, however, you should review briefly the parts of speech.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

A **noun** is the name of a person, place, or thing — as, *Marshall Field*, *California*, *pencil*. A noun may also name an idea, a quality, or an action. Such names as *beauty*, *noise*, *odor*, and *pain* express ideas that one gains through the senses. Names of qualities include such words as *honesty*,

happiness, faith, perseverance, etc., while names of actions comprise hundreds of words like *counting, filing, writing.*

A **pronoun** is a word that is used instead of a noun. Pronouns are classified as follows:

Personal pronouns: *I, you, he, she, it, we* and *they.*
Relative pronouns: *who, which, that,* and *what.*
Interrogative pronouns: *who, which,* and *what.*
Demonstrative pronouns: *this* and *that,* and the plurals *these* and *those.*
Indefinite pronouns: *one, any, anyone, someone, none, each, both, another,* etc.
Reciprocal pronouns: *each other, one another.*
Compound personal pronouns: *myself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves, himself, herself, themselves,*and *itself.*

A **verb** is a word that asserts — as, " Business men *work.*" Sometimes a group of words, called a *verb phrase,* is used to make an assertion. Such a phrase consists of a principal verb and one or more helping words, called *auxiliary verbs.* The auxiliary verbs include the various forms of the verbs *be* (*is, am, are, was, were, has been, have been*), *may, can, must, might, could, would, should, will, shall, ought, have, do,* and *did.* The following sentences contain verb phrases:

1. Your order *will receive* prompt attention.
2. We *shall be* glad to hear from you in a few days.
3. Our draft *has been returned.*

An **adjective** is a word that modifies a noun or a pronoun. An adjective that limits the meaning of a noun or a pronoun is called a *limiting adjective* — as, *this, that* (*these, those*), *all, each, either, few,* etc. The articles *a, an,*

and *the* belong to this class. An adjective that describes the object named by a noun or pronoun or expresses the kind or condition of the object is a *descriptive adjective* — as, *beautiful*, *good*, *tall*.

An **adverb** is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. The following sentences contain adverbs:

1. You are *cordially* invited to be present at a Private Exhibition of our new spring hats.
2. We were *extremely* sorry to learn from your letter of April 4 that the table was damaged.
3. We will *very* gladly take back the two coats.

An adverb answers the question *when? where? why? how? how many?* or *how much?* The words *how*, *when*, *where*, and *why* are sometimes used in asking questions, and in such cases are called *interrogative adverbs*.

A **preposition** is a word that is used to show the relation between a noun or a pronoun and some other word in the sentence — as, "Our draft *of* November 10 has been returned *to* us." The noun or pronoun following the preposition is called its *object*. Thus *us* is the object of *to* in the foregoing sentence.

A **conjunction** is a word that connects words, phrases, or clauses. These sentences illustrate the three uses:

1. Manufacturers *and* wholesalers allow credits varying from ten to ninety days.
2. The business envelope bears in its upper left-hand corner *or* on the flap the name and address of the house.
3. Some business houses prefer to have all letters single spaced, *but* others prefer to have them double spaced.

This discussion would scarcely be complete without a brief discussion of **verbals.** It is necessary, first of all, to distinguish between the verb and the verbal. Take, for example, the verb *write.* It has the forms *write, writes, wrote, writing,* and *written.* Not all of these forms are verbs, since some of them do not assert. The words *written* and *writing* do not make assertions by themselves. They are verbals. A verbal is a form of the verb that does not assert.

There are three classes of verbals; namely, *infinitives, participles,* and *gerunds.*

An **infinitive** is a verbal having the root form of the verb and performing the office of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

1. *To write* clearly is a great accomplishment. (Used as a noun.)
2. Our superintendent is a man *to admire.* (Used as an adjective modifier of *man.*)
3. The manager called *to see* me. (Used as an adverb, answering the question *Why?*)

Common forms of the infinitive include such as *to write, to be written, to have written, to have been written.*

A **participle** is a verbal not having the root form of the verb and performing the office of an adjective.

1. *Standing* near the stenographer's desk, the superintendent dictated the letter.
2. The company, *having refused* to accept the return of the goods, lost a valuable customer.

Common forms of the participle include such as *writing, being written, having written, having been written,* and *written.*

A **gerund** is a verbal having the ending *ing* and performing the office of a noun.

1. *Rendering* additional credit would be unwise.
2. His *taking* up the matter promptly with the railroad company hastened the delivery of the shipment.

Like a verb, an infinitive, participle, or gerund may take the usual adverbial modifiers or an object.

It is the way in which a word is used in the sentence that determines what part of speech it is. For example, in reply to a letter ordering goods, you may say, "Your *order* of June 10 has been received." In this sentence *order* is a noun. The case is different, however, in the following: "We frequently *order* goods from other houses." Here it is a verb. Again, a word may be an adjective in one sentence and an adverb in another. In the sentence, "Kindly make shipment by *fast* freight," *fast* is an adjective. It is, however, an adverb when used as follows: "The truck was driven so *fast* that the stove was broken."

To determine what part of speech a word is, therefore, you must answer the question, How is it used in the sentence?

It will be necessary also in this lesson to review briefly sentence, clause, and phrase.

A **sentence** is the expression of a complete thought in words. The simplest sentence must necessarily have a subject, the word or expression that names the person, thing, idea, quality, or action about which an assertion is made, and a predicate, the word or words that say something about the subject. In the sentence, "The customer paid cash for the goods," the subject is *The customer* and the predicate *paid cash for the goods*, of which *paid* is the verb. Some sentences also contain an object, that is, a word or group of words that completes the meaning of

the verb and tells what is acted upon, — as, "The salesman broke his *pencil*." Here *pencil* is the object of *broke*. Simple sentences become more complex as modifiers — words, phrases, and clauses — are added.

A **phrase** is a group of words that does not have a subject and predicate. It generally consists of a preposition and its object, or of an infinitive or participle and its object. The following sentences contain phrases:

1. The president *of the company* resigned.
2. The man wanted *to study salesmanship*.
3. The bond, *torn to pieces*, was found in the waste basket.

A **clause** is a group of words that has a subject and predicate. A principal, or independent, clause is one that makes an assertion. A subordinate, or dependent, clause is one that is used as a modifier of a word in the principal clause. The following sentences contain both principal and subordinate clauses:

1. An electrician *who was graduated from the Ranken Trade School* was employed to do the work.
2. *If you can operate the different office machines skillfully*, you should be able to secure employment without difficulty.
3. We understand *that orders have fallen off greatly during the past month.*

LESSON TWO

Nouns — the Formation of Plurals

A careful examination of a bundle of discarded business letters revealed a number of flagrant errors in the formation of plurals. Fortunately, these errors were of only a few kinds. By far the greatest number was found in the use of certain words that every successful stenographer or bookkeeper should know. In this lesson, then, you will be required to study only those forms which will be useful in your future work.

In general, nouns form their plurals by the addition of *s* or *es* to the singular.

Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant change *y* to *i* and add *es*. The word *lady*, belonging to this class, seems to cause more trouble than almost any other. You may rightly say *a lady's hat*, or even *a lady's hats*, if you are thinking of but one person; but if you are thinking of more than one, you should write *ladies' hats*.

Most nouns ending in *f* or *fe* change *f* to *v* and add *es* — as, *knife, knives; shelf, shelves*. There are, however, a few belonging to this class that add merely *s*. As they are very frequently used, you should make an effort to remember them. The chief ones are *brief, chief, gulf, proof*, and *scarf* (infrequently also *scarves*).

Nouns ending in *o* cause much trouble. Perhaps this simple rule will help a great deal: If a consonant precedes the *o*, add *es* as, *cargo, cargoes; potato, potatoes*. There are of course some exceptions which must be carefully committed to memory. These include the following: *solos*,

albinos, banjos, dynamos, pianos, porticos, provisos, tobaccos, twos, zeros.

Compound nouns cause little difficulty, and need cause none if you remember that each consists of two parts — a principal word and a word or words that describe the principal word. All that is required, therefore, is that you make the principal word plural — as, *brothers-in-law.*

In compounds written solid — that is, without a hyphen — make the ending plural — as, *bucketfuls, cupfuls, handfuls, spoonfuls.* If, however, you desire to say that there is more than one bucket or cup, you should write the expressions thus: *buckets full, cups full,* etc.

For the plural of a letter, figure, or sign, merely add the apostrophe and *s* — as, *b's,* 5*'s,* $*'s.* Good usage also sanctions the omission of the apostrophe — as, U. S. 5*s.*

In correspondence you will doubtless be puzzled at times to know how to form the plural when titles are involved. For example, how should you write the plural of *Miss Brown?* If you will examine the work of careful writers, you will find that almost all of them make the title plural — as, *the Misses Brown.* To form the plural of military titles you should generally add *s* at the last — as, *major generals.* In the case of civil titles, however, you should generally add *s* to the first part — as, *attorneys general.*

In writing the salutation of a letter addressed to several women, single or married, you may be puzzled to know just what is the required plural. There is indeed no English plural for *madam;* so we have borrowed *mesdames* from the French. Remember, however, that *dear* is not used with *mesdames.*

The words *goods*, *assets*, and *proceeds* are used frequently in business. They always require plural verbs. Remember to say, "The goods *are* damaged," "The company's assets *are* greater than its liabilities," and "The proceeds of the sale *were* one hundred dollars," not "The goods *is* damaged," "The company's assets *is* greater than its liabilities," and "The proceeds of the sale *was* one hundred dollars."

The names of certain sciences — *physics*, *ethics*, and *mathematics* — end in *s*, but they are nevertheless singular. They are no more plural than *Charles* and *James*. Note that they require a singular verb — thus:

Mathematics *is* a study helpful to a bookkeeper.
Business ethics *was* studied by every member of the firm.

The expressions *two dozen*, *three score*, *four yoke*, etc., are very often used. Remember that *dozen*, *score*, *yoke*, and a few other words of this kind do not require the addition of *s* when preceded by a numeral. In order letters the word *pair* is sometimes used instead of *pairs*. This is incorrect. The word *pairs* should always be used — as, *three pairs* of socks. Also avoid the use of the singular for the plural in such expressions as five *year*, four *bushel*, nine *mile;* say five *years*, four *bushels*, nine *miles*.

A few foreign nouns still retain their old plurals. Where new plurals have been adopted, these are formed in the regular way, and you need spend no time on them. For example, *memorandums* is the new plural of *memorandum*. Some other words of foreign derivation ending in *is* form their plurals by changing *i* to *e* — as, crisis, *crises*.

The following forms should be carefully learned:

Singular		*Plural*
addendum	an addition	*addenda*
alumnus	a graduate of a school or college	*alumni* (masculine)
alumna	a graduate of a school or college	*alumnae* (feminine)
analysis	a division into parts	*analyses*
crisis	a decisive moment	*crises*
datum	a fact or principle on which an inference is based	*data*
erratum	a mistake in printing or writing	*errata*
monsieur	a French title corresponding to the English *Mr.*	*messieurs*
parenthesis	one of the curved marks in punctuation ( )	*parentheses*
phenomenon	an unusual occurrence	*phenomena*
synopsis	a brief outline of main points	*synopses*

LESSON THREE

The Formation of the Possessive

A young woman recently sent an order letter in which she had written "2 doz. lady's handkerchiefs" and "3 pairs of childrens' rompers." These expressions correctly written are, of course, "2 doz. ladies' handkerchiefs," and "3 pairs of children's rompers." Evidently her mistakes were due to her failure to understand the formation of the plural possessive. In order to avoid such errors it is necessary to remember at least two rules.

Ordinarily, the possessive singular is formed by adding the apostrophe and *s* — as, "the *company's* capital stock." When the addition of *s* produces a hissing sound some writers add only the apostrophe — as, "*Burns'* works," "*Dickens'* novels." Other authorities adhere to the rule — writing "*Burns's* works," "*Charles's* books," "the *witness's* testimony," and "the *countess's* jewels." — Either method is correct, but the modern American tendency is to use only the apostrophe.

The possessive plural is formed by adding only the apostrophe to plural nouns ending in *s*. Thus you should write "*ladies'* gloves," "*boys'* suits," "*misses'* coats," and "*citizens'* league."

To plural nouns not ending in *s*, add, usually, both the apostrophe and *s*. According to this rule you should write "*men's* clothing," "*women's* low shoes," and "*children's* dresses."

First decide whether you need a singular or a plural

noun. Then make sure you can spell the required form correctly, omitting for the time being the sign of the possessive. Having done this, you are ready to form the possessive. Remember that goods advertised or kept for sale are intended for more than one person; consequently you should write "*ladies'* gloves," "*women's* coats," "*girls'* dresses." It is correct, however, to write "a *lady's* glove" or "a *woman's* coat" when speaking of one person's property.

When two or more nouns are used together to denote joint ownership, add the sign of the possessive to the last — thus:

Little, Brown and Company's publications
Hanly & Miller's law office

Should you desire to express separate ownership, add the sign of the possessive to each. For example, write "*Hanly's* and *Miller's* law offices."

The following expressions occur frequently in business, and every commercial worker should remember to use the possessive form: [1]

four months' interest	sixty days' credit
two years' time	two weeks' vacation
a day's wages	two years' experience

Sometimes compound nouns prove troublesome. Where, for example, should the sign of the possessive be placed in such words as *brother-in-law?* In answer it should be said that all authorities agree that it should be placed at the last, regardless of the part of the word changed in forming the plural — thus:

[1] Scott, *Practical English*, pages 54–55.

Sing.	brother-in-law	*Sing. poss.*	brother-in-law's
Plu.	brothers-in-law	*Plu. poss.*	brothers-in-law's

Certain crude errors arise in the addition of the possessive sign to the pronouns. Do not write *our's*, *your's* *their's*, *his'*, *her's*, etc. These words are already possessive in form and certainly do not need the apostrophe. Simply write *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, *his*, and *hers*. Also remember that *it's* is a contraction of *it is* and that *its* is the possessive form.

Always avoid awkward possessive expressions. Write simple but dignified English, such as is found in the correspondence of reputable firms. It is not good writing, for example, to use the expression "*somebody's* else book" when ninety-nine per cent of the people say "somebody *else's* book." The observance of these principles should make you a better writer of business English.

On page 4 you learned of verbals. Frequently verbals are modified by nouns or pronouns. In such cases the modifier is always in the possessive case, as —

Did he agree to *my* signing the bond?
Had you learned of *John's* being promoted?
I heard in New York of *his* going.
Morton's buying the mill was a good business move.

LESSON FOUR

Nouns Commonly Confused

This lesson treats of the meaning and use of a number of words commonly misused. The words are presented in pairs, and the one point most needed to insure the proper use of each is carefully stated. The definitions given, sometimes in full, are taken from the *New Standard Dictionary*,[1] and some of the comments distinguishing meanings are also from this book. Study the distinctions in meanings and the illustrations until you thoroughly understand the use of every word.

ABILITY, CAPACITY

Ability. The state or quality of being able; physical, mental, moral, or legal power; power to plan, direct, give, or do; talent; faculty, especially as having reference to action.

Capacity. 1. The ability to receive or contain; cubic extent; carrying power or space; said of that within which any solid or fluid may be placed, and also used figuratively. 2. Ability to absorb and retain; as, heat, moisture, electricity, etc. 3. Adequate mental power to receive, understand, endure, or develop; measure of such ability; talent; especially passive power. 4. Productive power in general; capability — as, "Fire has an immense *capacity* for destructiveness." 5. Specific position or relation — as, "He traveled in the *capacity* of tutor."

This distinction should be kept carefully in mind; namely, *ability* means power or skill to do a thing, while *capacity* means the power to receive and retain knowledge. *Capacity* implies aptness and talent for learning and planning.

1. An office manager should possess *ability* to handle men.
2. An engineer must have *capacity* for mathematics.

[1] Copyright by Funk and Wagnalls Company, New York and London.

ADMITTANCE, ADMISSION

Admittance. The act of admitting or the state or fact of being admitted; entrance; or the right or permission to enter.

Admission. 1. The act of admitting, or the state of being admitted, as to some place, society, office, etc.; the right or power of approach or entrance; entrance — as, *admission* into a room, *admission* of air. 2. A conceding, acknowledging, or confessing, or that which is acknowledged or conceded — as, *admission* of guilt. 3. The price charged or paid to be admitted.

Admittance means the gaining of entrance; *admission*, the gaining of entrance together with certain favors or privileges. We rightly say "Admission, one dollar" and "Admission, free."

1. Will you please write me stating fully the requirements for *admission* to Brown's Business College?
2. The messenger gained *admittance* to the office and handed the manager a telegram.

AUDIENCE, SPECTATORS

Audience. An assembly of hearers; a gathering of persons to listen to something.

Spectator. One who beholds or looks on; an eye-witness; also, one present at a spectacle — as, "At the royal approach the *spectators* cheered."

1. The *audience* heard a lecture on salesmanship.
2. A group of business men were interested *spectators* at the races.

BALANCE, REST, REMAINDER

Balance. 1. A pair of scales; an instrument for weighing, especially very delicate, accurate weighing, or for measuring physical force. 2. The act of balancing or mentally comparing the qualities or importance of two things. 3. *Com.* (1) An equality between the credit and debit totals of an account. (2) The difference between such totals; excess on either side — as, "The *balance* is $500."

Rest. 1. That which remains or is left over. 2. Those that remain; those not included in a given statement or description. The

word also has the following meanings: 1. The act or state of resting. 2. Freedom from disturbance, disquiet, or uneasiness. 3. Sleep as a condition of repose. 4. That on which anything rests, lies, or leans.

Remainder. 1. That which remains; something left after a subtraction; expenditure, or passing over of a part; a residue; remnant. 2. That which is left after the subtraction of one quantity from another. 3. An estate in expectancy.

To insure the correct use of these words it will be necessary to remember that *balance* is a term used in bookkeeping and that *remainder* is not generally used in speaking of persons. Do not use *balance* in the sense of *rest* or *remainder*.

1. The bookkeeper was busy making up a trial *balance*.
2. We have decided to keep the greater part of the goods, but are shipping the *remainder* by American Express.
3. When business became dull, the company decided to keep only the best ones of its employees; the *rest* of them were discharged.

COMMUNICATION, LETTER

Communication is the more general term and may refer to a letter, telegram, telephone message, etc. It is always better to use the more specific word. For example, "Your letter of October 10" is better than "Your communication of October 10" if you mean a letter.

COUNCIL, COUNSEL

Council means an assembly; **counsel**, an adviser, an attorney.

1. We shall employ experienced *counsel* to represent us before the City *Council*.
2. Mr. Young acted as my *counsel* in business affairs.

NEGLECT, NEGLIGENCE

Neglect. 1. The act of neglecting. *Specif.* (1) Omission to do something that should be done; oversight. (2) Omission to pay due attention or civility; slight; disregard. 2. The state of being neglected.

Negligence. 1. The act of neglecting, or the quality that exhibits

neglect; habitual omission of that which ought to be done; or the habit of omitting to do things, either from carelessness or design.

Negligence is often used to denote the quality or trait of character of which the act is a manifestation, or to denote the habit of neglecting that which ought to be done.

1. Our *neglect* to fill your order promptly has no doubt caused you great inconvenience.
2. We assure you, however, that *negligence* is not a characteristic of our house.

PARTY, PERSON

Party. 1. Any one of two or more bodies of people contending for antagonistic or rival opinions or policies in a community or society; especially one of the opposing political organizations striving for supremacy in a state. 2. The action of taking sides on a question of public policy. 3. A number or company of persons assembled for some purpose; especially a number gathered for amusement; also, an entertainment to which a number are invited. 4. A company constituting a part of a larger company or body, especially a small company of soldiers detailed for special service. 5. *Law.* One of the persons, natural or artificial, named on the record in an action, either as plaintiff or defendant; one who is related or united with another or others in a contract.

Party is a legal term that should not be used in the ordinary sense of *person*. It is used most frequently in contracts — as, "The *party* of the first part."

1. Our company was made a *party* to the suit.
2. Here is the *person* who represents the Goodyear Rubber Company. (Not the *party*.)

PRINCIPAL, PRINCIPLE

Principal. 1. One who takes a leading part; one concerned directly and not as an auxiliary; one who is a leader or chief in some action — as, the *principal* in a debate. *Law.* (1) The actor in a crime or one present aiding and abetting. (2) The employer of one who acts as an agent. 2. One who is at the head of some body;

chief; one who is in authority. 3. Property or capital, as opposed to interest or income.

Principle. 1. A source or cause from which a thing proceeds; a power that acts continuously or uniformly. 2. That which is inherent in anything, determining its nature; essential character; essence; original faculty. 3. A general truth or proposition. 4. A settled law or rule of action.

1. The *principal* directed his agent to buy certain goods.
2. The *principal* of the Burdett School has made his institution one of the best in the country.
3. A successful business man is guided by the *principles* of honesty and economy.

RELATIONS, RELATIVES

Relation. The fact or condition of being related or connected or that by which things are connected, either objectively or in the mind; the standing of two or more things with reference each to the other; interdependence; connections, such as family *relations*.

Relative. One that is connected by blood or affinity; a kinsman.

We may rightly speak of our business *relations*, but should not use the word in reference to those related to us by blood.

1. His business *relations* have always been pleasant.
2. I have not been associated with any of my *relatives* in the grain business.

STATUE, STATUTE

Statue. A plastic work representing a human or animal figure, generally in marble or bronze; especially such a work nearly life-size or large as distinguished from statuette and preserving the proportions in all directions as distinguished from relief.

Statute. A legislative enactment duly sanctioned and authenticated by constitutional rule.

Do not make such errors as this: "He carved a beautiful *statute*."

1. A *statue* of General Grant was placed near the entrance of the building.
2. The planters were protected in their rights by a state *statute*.

LESSON FIVE

How to Use the Personal Pronouns Correctly

Among the troublesome words which you use frequently are the personal pronouns. They include *I*, *we*, *me*, *us*, *he*, *she*, *they*, *him*, *her*, and *them*. Unlike nouns, the personal pronouns have distinct forms for subject and for object.

Those that are used as subjects are commonly called *nominative* forms, and they include *I*, *we*, *he*, *she*, and *they*. Note their use as subjects in these sentences.

1. *I* am required to open the envelopes and check all enclosures.
2. Under separate cover *they* sent samples.

Those that are used as objects are called *objective* forms. The objective forms are *me*, *us*, *him*, *her*, and *them*. The following sentences illustrate their use:

1. The stranger saw *me* working at the desk.
2. We notify *them* by card or by letter when their order has been received.
3. The clerk addressed the envelope for *him*. (*Him* is the object of *for*.)

Unless your English is very good you will probably find that in compound subjects you have been using an objective form where you needed a subject, or nominative form. You have heard such expressions as "Miss Smart and *me* work in the shipping department" and "*Us* boys are studying shorthand." The pronouns needed here are, of course, *I* and *we* — thus: "Miss Smart and *I* work in the shipping department," and "*We* boys are studying short-

hand." Such errors are common where the subject is compound, that is, where there are two or more subjects.

A like error is often made when the object is compound — as, "Mr. Wayman sent James and *me* to the post office." It would be bad English to say, "Mr. Wayman sent James and *I* to the post office." Remember also that you should use objective forms after prepositions — such words as *in*, *on*, *at*, *to*, *from*, *between*, etc. Have you ever heard such sentences as these: "*Between you and I* there should be no hard feelings in regard to the settlement of this account," "*For you and I* there is little hope of success," and "Hand your report *to Mr. Shallcross or I*"? However right these may sound, they are, nevertheless, incorrect, and you must make a determined effort to say, "*Between you and me* there should be no hard feelings in regard to the settlement of this account," "*For you and me* there is little hope of success," and "Hand your report *to Mr. Shallcross or me.*"

By the rule of politeness the speaker should mention himself last, and the pronoun *you* should stand first in the sentence. It is therefore incorrect to say, "I and Mr. Fisher will assist you in filing the letters" and "I hope you will include me and Miss Benn in your mailing list." The following sentences illustrate the application of the rule:

1. *Miss Smith and I* will make copies of the letter.
2. I hope you will include *Miss Benn and me* in your mailing list.
3. *You, Mr. Miller, and I* have just been appointed mailing clerks.

Your attention has already been called to the fact that objective forms of the pronouns should be used after

prepositions. There are, however, two words that deserve special attention on account of the large number of errors that arise in their use. These words are *like* and *than*.

Like should be considered a preposition in such sentences as these: "*Like you and me* Miss Starr wishes to become a private secretary" and "*Like him* I have learned to use an adding machine." It is incorrect to use *like* as a conjunction — that is, to introduce a statement; for example, "The typewriter looks *like it needed cleaning*" and "It looks *like the superintendent will not be here this afternoon.*" In all such cases use *as if*, *as though*, or *as* — thus: "The typewriter looks *as if it needed cleaning.*"

After *than* or *as* introducing an incomplete clause, always use the form of the pronoun required if the clause were expressed in full; for example, "Mr. Stein can take dictation faster *than I* (*can*)." Do not say, "Mr. Stein can take dictation faster *than me.*"

So important are the common errors in the use of pronouns that a complete list of correct forms is presented for your study. Note that the pronoun *it* is not included, as the subject and object forms are the same, and therefore there are no errors in their use. The correct forms should be repeated aloud and written several times.

The following sentences show compound subjects correctly used:

1. *John and I* stamped the envelopes. (Not *John and me.*)
2. *He and his* partner borrowed the capital. (Not *him and his partner.*)
3. *She and her* friend secured positions. (Not *her and her friend.*)
4. *Our friends and we* resigned. (Not *Our friends and us.*)

5. *They and their* competitors agreed. (Not *them and their* competitors.)
6. *He and I* worked late. (Not *him and I* or *him and me.*)
7. *She and I* signed the note. (Not *her and I* or *her and me.*)
8. *She and he* signed the note. (Not *her and he* or *her and him.*)
9. *They and I* made a contract. (Not *them and I, they and me,* or *them and me.*)
10. *He and they* cut prices. (Not *him and they, he and them,* or *him and them.*)
11. *She and they* resigned. (Not *her and they* or *her and them.*)
12. *They, he, and I* all did a big business. (Not *them, he, and I* or *them, him, and I,* or *them, him, and me.*)
13. *They, she, and I* sell insurance. (Not *them, she, and I* or *them, her, and I* or *them, her, and me.*)
14. *They and we* made a profit on the goods. (Not *them and we* or *they and us.*)
15. *They, he, and we* had a meeting. (Not *them, him, and us* or *they, him, and us,* or *them, him, and we.*)
16. *They, she, and we* bought steel stock. (Not *them, her, and us* or *they, her, and us* or *them, her, and we.*)

The following sentences show the same pronouns correctly used as objects:

1. The envelopes were stamped by *John and me.* (Not *John and I.*)
2. The capital was borrowed by *him and his* partner. (Not *he and his* partner.)
3. The positions were secured by *her and her* friends. (Not *she and her* friends.)
4. They discharged *us and our* friends. (Not *we and our* friends.)
5. An agreement was made between *them and their* competitors. (Not *they and their* competitors.)
6. The hour was late for *him and me.* (Not *he and I* or *him and I.*)
7. The note was signed by *her and me.* (Not *she and I* or *she and me.*)

8. The note was signed by *her and him.* (Not *she and he* or *her and he.*)
9. A contract was made by *them and me.* (Not *they and I* or *them and I* or *they and me.*)
10. Prices were cut by *him and them.* (Not *he and they* or *him and they* or *he and them.*)
11. Resignations were mailed to the company by *her and them.* (Not *she and they* or *she and them* or *her and they.*)
12. Business prospered for *them, him, and me.* (Not *they, he, and I* or *them, him, and I* or *they, him, and me.*)
13. Much insurance was sold by *them, her, and me.* (Not *they, she, and I* or *them, she, and I* or *they, her, and me.*)
14. A profit on the goods was made by *them and us.* (Not *they and us* or *them and we.*)
15. A meeting was held by *them, him, and us.* (Not *they, he, and we* or *they, him, and us* or *they, he, and us.*)
16. Several shares of steel stock were bought by *them, her, and us.* (Not *they, she, and we* or *them, she, and we* or *they, she, and us.*)

In referring to a person or thing it is incorrect to use both the noun and the pronoun, the pronoun immediately following the noun, as "*John he* went home," "*Martha she* wrote the note," "The *pencils they* are on my desk." Say instead "*John* went home," "*Martha* wrote the note," "The *pencils* are on my desk."

LESSON SIX

How to Use the Pronouns Correctly (*Continued*)

There is one important exception to the rule stated in Lesson Five; namely, the nominative, or subject, pronouns should be used after the various forms of the verb *be*. You have often heard such mistakes as "It is *me*" and "It was *her*" for "It was *I*" and "It was *she*." It will require a great deal of care to establish the habit of using the correct expression in all such cases. First of all you will need to remember the various forms of the verb *be*. They include *is, are, was, were, has been, have been, can be, could be, will be, shall be, would be, should be, may be*, etc. Read the following sentences carefully and review them frequently until you can use the correct form without effort:

1. *It is I* who distribute the mail.
2. *It is we* who address the envelopes.
3. *It is they* who asked for application blanks.
4. Who was at the desk? *It was she.*
5. *If it was he* who folded the letter, he did not follow the rule.
6. *If it had been they* who received the goods, they would have notified us at once.
7. I am sure *it will be he* who will be chosen business manager.
8. *Can it be she* who is working at the letterpress?
9. *Could it have been they* who manufactured an article so inferior as this?
10. If any company succeeds in the clothing business, *it should be we.*

There are only two exceptions to the foregoing, as follows: When *to be* or *to have been* is preceded by the word

it, the verbal is followed by the objective form of the pronoun — thus:

1. I believe *it to be him.*
2. I supposed *it to have been them.*

When *to be* or *to have been* is not immediately preceded by *it*, the verbal is followed by the subject form, or nominative, as usual — thus:

1. It was believed *to be he.*
2. It was supposed *to have been they.*

Other subjects may be used like the word *it* in such constructions — thus:

1. For a time I believed *John to be him.*
2. We supposed *this strange person to have been her.*

When the noun used with *to be* or *to have been* is made to stand as the subject of the principal verb, the verbal is followed by the subject form — thus:

1. For a time John was believed *to be he.*
2. This strange person was supposed *to have been she.*

LESSON SEVEN

How to Use the Pronouns Correctly (*Continued*)

TROUBLESOME COMPOUNDS

Certain compound pronouns are so frequently misused that it will be necessary to study them somewhat carefully. They include the following forms:

myself	*ourselves*
himself	*themselves*
herself	
itself	
yourself	*yourselves*

These forms should not be used as subjects. For example, it is incorrect to write the following:

1. *Sister and myself* are studying business English.
2. *Mr. Cline and yourself* will be sent to our Missouri territory.
3. *The agent and myself* should be able to arrange terms of sale satisfactory to both sides.

The correct expressions, of course, are as follows:

1. *Sister and I* are studying business English.
2. *Mr. Cline and you* will be sent to our Missouri territory.
3. *The agent and I* should be able to arrange terms of sale satisfactory to both sides.

Do not allow yourself to fall into the habit of using the compound forms to supplant the simple personal pronouns either as subjects or objects. For example, do not say, "He intrusted the work to *Miss White and myself*" and "*It was ourselves* who were compelled to cancel our orders." It is correct to say, "He intrusted the work *to Miss White*

and me," and "*It was we* who were compelled to cancel our orders."

The compound forms may, however, be used with a subject, or even with an object, for emphasis — thus:

1. *The superintendent himself* signed the check.
2. *I myself* was appointed wire chief.
3. The mistake was made *by the president himself*.
4. *They themselves* have become manufacturers of rubber goods.

They may also be correctly used to refer back to the subject — thus:

1. The carpenter hurt *himself*.
2. The salesman did *himself* an injustice.
3. By refusing to pay the account, you have placed *yourself* in a very embarrassing position.

Certain incorrect forms often creep into our speech. Do not say *hisself* for *himself*, *theirself* for *themselves*, *ourself* for *ourselves*, and *theirselves* for *themselves*. For example, it is incorrect to say, "*Our packers theirselves* are responsible for the broken table," "*Our buyer hisself* was unsuccessful in selecting the best quality of goods," and "We bought oil stock *ourself*." The correct expressions are, of course, as follows: "*Our packers themselves* are responsible for the broken table," "*Our buyer himself* was unsuccessful in selecting the best quality of goods," and "We bought oil stock *ourselves*."

A GROUP OF SINGULAR SUBJECTS

Each of the following subjects denotes but one person. Learn them thoroughly and do not forget that they are singular subjects.

anyone	*anybody*	*a person*
everyone	*everybody*	*a man*
none	*nobody*	
someone	*somebody*	

Everyone and *everybody* look very much like plural forms, but each refers to but one person. Therefore, when you use pronouns to refer to these words, you should use the singular to agree with them in number — thus:

1. *Everybody* took off *his* hat.
2. *Someone* has lost *his* check.
3. *Anyone* can do as *he* pleases about returning the goods.
4. *Nobody* can deny that *he* has made mistakes selling.
5. *Everyone* has the right to protect *his* own property.
6. *A person* should never forget *his* duty to his regular customers.

The following words also are singular when used as pronouns: *each*, *every*, *either*, and *neither*. These words are also frequently used with singular subjects. Note carefully how they are used in the following sentences:

1. *Each* took off *his* coat.
2. *Each* clerk had *his* pencil and notebook.
3. *Every* man in our store has *his* own salesbook.
4. *Either* Mr. Deal *or* Mr. Wise must give *his* full time to the work of preparing for the spring sales.

When two or more subjects connected by *and* are preceded by *each*, *every*, or *no*, the pronoun must be singular. For example, you should say, " Each letter and each card has *its* place," not " Each letter and each card has *their* place." Also, " Each person has *his* own desk," not " Each person has *their* own desk." In this sentence *his* is preferable to *his or her*, though either may be used.

Sometimes a second subject is joined to another by such expressions as *and also, as well as, together with, but not,* etc. When this is the case, the pronoun must agree in number with the first, as the first is indeed the real subject; for example, " Mr. Price, *as well as* our other representatives, has done *his* best to serve our interests."

Some difficulty arises in the use of pronouns to represent nouns denoting a collection. When the collection is thought of as a whole, you should use a singular pronoun — as, " The jury returned *its* verdict at noon." The case is different, however, when the individuals in the collection are thought of — as, " The jury were divided in *their* opinions."

When the pronoun *one* is used as a subject, it may be followed by *one's* or by *his* — for example, "One should do *one's* (or *his*) best to increase the business of the firm."

LESSON EIGHT

Relative Pronouns

There are four relative pronouns — *who, which, that,* and *what.* They are of such great importance in ordinary speech and writing that everyone should learn to use them correctly.

Who should be used in speaking of persons; *which,* in speaking of animals and things; and *that,* in speaking of persons, animals, and things. *What* is equivalent to *that which* and is used in speaking of things.

That has a broader use than any other relative, often being used instead of *who* or *which.* It must necessarily be used when there is joint reference to persons and things — as, "Our attention was turned to the man and the dog *that* entered the store." Its most appropriate use, however, is to introduce a clause that limits closely the word to which it refers — as, "The man *that lives next door* is the manager of the company." The clause "that lives next door" points out a particular man (not every man); so that it may be regarded as limiting the word *man* closely. You will find, however, that some good writers do not follow this rule, but use *who* in speaking of persons or *which* in speaking of animals and things whenever it suits their fancy.

Who has different forms for the nominative, possessive, and objective uses.

Nominative, or subject, form	*who*
Possessive form	*whose*
Objective, or object, form	*whom*

Notice the use of these forms in the following sentences:

1. The owner of a good car respects the man *who* sold it to him. (*Who* is the subject of *sold*.)
2. We believe you will like the new salesman *whom* we have sent. (*Whom* is the object of *sent*.)
3. This is the merchant *whose* profit last year exceeded fifty per cent.

A very common error is the use of *who* for *whom* in short questions ending or beginning with a preposition. You almost constantly hear such incorrect expressions as these: "*Who* did you call for?" "*Who* are you working for?" "*Who* are you associated in business with?" In all such cases you should use an objective form on account of the preposition. If you will turn these expressions around so that the preposition stands first, you can see this more clearly. The correct expressions are these: "*For whom* did you call?" "*For whom* are you working?" "*With whom* are you associated in business?" If you prefer to close a question with a preposition, you should usually begin it with the word *whom*. For example, you should say: "*Whom* are you working for?" "*Whom* shall we appeal to?" But it is better to use the preposition at the beginning of the clause or sentence than at the end.

Remember that the forms of the verb *be* (*is, are, was, were,* etc.) take subject forms after them, which, as you learned in Lesson Six, is an exception to the general rule that all verbs are followed by the objective form. It is, therefore, incorrect to say, "*Whom* did you say the

manager was? " or " I do not know *whom* it is that is to blame." Say *who* in these cases.

Sometimes when certain expressions — such as, " I am sure," " I cannot doubt," etc. — are thrown into the sentence, you will find it more difficult to choose between *who* and *whom;* for example, " We are sending you a bookkeeper *who*, we are sure, *will give* satisfaction." Here *who* is the right word, because a subject is needed for *will give.* But it is correct to say, " She is a young lady *whom*, I am sure, *you can trust.*" In this sentence *whom* is the object of *can trust.* Note carefully the following sentence: " The superintendent, *who*, as you know, *was to blame*, has been discharged." This is somewhat more involved than any of the preceding sentences, but it becomes easy if you merely drop out the parenthetical expression " as you know." It then appears that *who* is the subject of *was* in the expression " who was to blame." No one would think of saying " whom was to blame."

The compound forms *whoever* and *whomever* are used like *who* and *whom. Whoever* is a subject, or nominative form, while *whomever* is the objective. The form *whomever* may disappear at some time in the future, but it should not be given over yet. Note the correct use of these words in the following sentences:

1. I will enter into a contract with *whoever gives* me the best terms.
2. *Whoever can sell* the greatest number of cars will be given a prize.
3. You may employ *whomever* you choose. (*Whomever* is the object of *choose.*)

4. Hand the subscription list to *whomever* you meet. (*Whomever* is the object of the preposition *to*.)

Note carefully this sentence: "When a check is made payable to the bearer, the bank must pay the money to *whoever presents* it." Here a subject for the verb *presents* is needed, and *whomever* would be incorrect. The whole word clause is the object of the preposition *to*.

LESSON NINE

Troublesome Verbs

Most verbs have one form to denote present time and another to denote past time — as, "I *see*" and "I *saw*." Many errors arise from confusing these two forms. For example, *come* and *came* are confused. *Came* is rightly used to express only past time, but again and again you will hear such sentences as "I *come* late to work yesterday," "Many orders *come* last Monday," and "As soon as the telegram *come*, I handed it to Mr. Wright." In the same way the following forms are often confused:

Present	*Past*
forbid	forbade
give	gave
run	ran

It is incorrect to say —

1. When I arrived the teacher *forbid* me to enter.
2. I *give* you references in my letter of January 10.
3. Our supply of oak lumber *run* out last week.

Good usage requires that we use the past forms, commonly called the *past tense*, in these sentences — thus:

1. The teacher *forbade* me to enter when I arrived.
2. I *gave* you references in my letter of January 10.
3. Our supply of oak lumber *ran* out last week.

Verbs also have a third form which is called the *past participle*. For example, the verb *see* has for its principal parts the forms *see*, *saw*, and *seen*. It is the third form, or past participle, with which are used *has*, *have*, *is*, *are*,

was, were, will be, shall be, and a few others, giving the correct expressions *has seen, have seen, is seen, are seen, was seen, were seen,* etc. The past participle cannot be used either to make an assertion by itself or to express past time. Many mistakes arise in this way, and they are indeed crude. The following sentences illustrate this kind of error:

1. I *seen* Mr. Wiley folding the letter.
2. I *begun* work at eight o'clock today.
3. Miss Price *broken* my typewriter.
4. The young man *done* the work with a stamping machine.
5. At noon I *drunk* a glass of milk.
6. The manager *shrunk* from the unpleasant task of discharging the boy.
7. Mr. Wells *sung* all day long at the music counter.

Good usage requires that you use in these sentences either the ordinary past forms or the past participle with one of the forms of *have* or *be,* according to the meaning to be conveyed — thus:

1. I *saw* Mr. Wiley folding the letters. (or *have seen.*)
2. I *began* work at eight o'clock today.
3. Miss Price *broke* my typewriter. (or *has broken.*)
4. The young man *did* the work with a stamping machine. (or *has done.*)
5. At noon I *drank* a glass of milk.
6. The manager *shrank* from the unpleasant task of discharging the boy.
7. Mr. Wells *sang* all day long at the music counter. (or *has sung.*)

Many mistakes arise through the use of *has* or *have, is* or *are, was* or *were,* with the ordinary past forms. For example, "I *have saw*" or "I *have went*" is incorrect.

Other mistakes of this kind include *has did, has broke, has drank, has ate,* etc. The correct expressions, of course, are *have seen, have gone, has done, has broken, has drunk,* and *has eaten.*

Recent investigations have shown that most of our mistakes occur in the use of verbs. Those most frequently misused in business are given below. Every student should carefully learn their principal parts.

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke	awaked
be	was	been
bear	bore	borne, born
beat	beat	beaten
become	became	become
begin	began	begun
bid (offer)	bid	bid
bid (invite)	bade	bidden
bite	bit	bitten
bind	bound	bound
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
bring	brought	brought
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
choose	chose	chosen
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
dive	dived	dived
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
flee	fled	fled
flow	flowed	flowed
fly	flew	flown
forbid	forbade	forbidden
forget	forgot	forgotten
forgive	forgave	forgiven
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got, gotten*
go	went	gone
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung (an object)	hung
hang	hanged (a person)	hanged
hide	hid	hidden
hit	hit	hit
know	knew	known
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie (rest)	lay	lain
lie	lied	lied
lose	lost	lost
loose	loosed	loosed
make	made	made
pass	passed	passed

* Both *had got* and *had gotten* are correct. For a time there was a tendency to dispute the correctness of *had gotten* but that has passed and either of the two forms are now used by discriminating people. Care should be exercised not to use *got* in any of its forms when the meaning is merely *have*. (See Deffendall's *Actual Business Correspondence*.)

Present	*Past*	*Past Participles*
pay	paid	paid
plead	pleaded	pleaded
prove	proved	proved, proven*
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen
set	set	set
shake	shook	shaken
shine	shone	shone
show	showed	shown
shrink	shrank	shrunk
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
sow	sowed	sowed, sown
speak	spoke	spoken
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
strike	struck	struck, stricken
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn
swell	swelled	swollen
swim	swam	swum
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
think	thought	thought

* *Proved* is generally used as the past participle and *proven* as an adjective, as — "The tires *had proved* excellent," "tires of *proven* worth."

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
throw	threw	thrown
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
win	won	won
write	wrote	written

Compare the expressions given below and form the habit of using each verb correctly. If necessary, read the sentences carefully several times.

Incorrect	*Correct*
1. Our office boy *had awoke* at six o'clock each day.	1. Our office boy *had awaked* at six o'clock each day.
2. The whistle *has blew* early the past few days.	2. The whistle *has blown* early the past few days.
3. The man *has broke* his contract with us.	3. The man *has broken* his contract with us.
4. The motor was so heavy that it *bursted* the box.	4. The motor was so heavy that it *burst* the box.
5. Mr. Lane *had chose* bookkeeping.	5. Mr. Lane *had chosen* bookkeeping.
6. The messenger *dove* into the stream.	6. The messenger *dived* into the stream.
7. Mr. Brown *done* his work well while employed here.	7. Mr. Brown *did* his work well while employed here.
8. The architect *has drawed* a plan for our new factory building.	8. The architect *has drawn* a plan for our new factory building.
9. The railroad company refused to employ anyone who *drunk* liquor.	9. The railroad company refused to employ anyone who *drank* liquor.
10. The salesman *had drove* from one village to another.	10. The salesman *had driven* from one village to another.

Incorrect	*Correct*
11. Our employees *had eat* lunch early that day.	11. Our employees *had eaten* lunch early that day.
12. The bandit *had flew* with the payroll.	12. The bandit *had fled* with the payroll.
13. A copy of the contract *had fell* out of the window.	13. A copy of the contract *had fallen* out of the window.
14. We are sorry to learn that the fruit *was froze* before it reached you.	14. We are sorry to learn that the fruit *was frozen* before it reached you.
15. We *have went* through out files carefully.	15. We *have gone* through our files carefully.
16. The company *has knowed* his financial standing for many months.	16. The company *has known* his financial standing for many months.
17. Our attorney *plead* the case.	17. Our attorney *pleaded* the case.
18. The Goodrich Tires *have* more than *proven* superior in quality.	18. The Goodrich Tires *have proved* more than superior in quality.
19. Our salesmen *have* often *rode* eighty miles a day by automobile.	19. Our salesmen *have* often *ridden* eighty miles a day by automobile.
20. The elderly gentleman *had ran* a grocery store.	20. The elderly gentleman *had run* a grocery store.
21. The secretary *has showed* me how to file the papers.	21. The secretary *has shown* me how to file the papers.
22. The company *had sank* beneath the weight of its debts.	22. The company *had sunk* beneath the weight of its debts.
23. Evidently the watchman *had slayed* the robber.	23. Evidently the watchman *had slain* the robber.
24. The head of the complaint department *had spoke* harshly to him.	24. The head of the complaint department *had spoken* harshly to him.

Incorrect	*Correct*
25. A well dressed woman *had stole* a beautiful fur coat.	25. A well dressed woman *had stolen* a beautiful fur coat.
26. The boy *had swam* the stream in an effort to deliver the package.	26. The boy *had swum* the stream in an effort to deliver the package.
27. Several leaves *were tore* from the book you sent us.	27. Several leaves *were torn* from the book you sent us.
28. The customer *throwed* the package down.	28. The customer *threw* the package down.
29. I *have wore* this style of shoes for three years.	29. I *have worn* this style of shoes for three years.

These troublesome verbs are included in the exercise on common errors beginning on page 196. It is of the utmost importance for you to correct in your daily speech and writing all such errors. The value to you of memorizing the list of verbs given in this lesson can not be overestimated. You should continue to drill upon all of them until you have thoroughly mastered them.

LESSON TEN

Troublesome Verbs (*Continued*)

The verbs *lie*, *sit*, and *rise* are often misused. If you understand their meaning, however, you should have little difficulty with them. The following are simple definitions which you should learn:

To lie means to rest in a reclining position.
To sit means to rest on the haunches or to occupy a seat.
To rise means to get up, *not* to raise something.

As you have already learned, every verb has three principal parts — the present tense, the past tense, and the past participle. The principal parts of the verbs given here should be carefully learned:

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
lie	lay	lain
sit	sat	sat
rise	rose	risen

There are also three verbs very similar to these — namely, *lay*, *set*, and *raise*. Though they are different in meaning from *lie*, *sit*, and *rise*, they are often confused with them. You should therefore learn the exact meaning of each.

To lay means to place an object down.
To set means to place something or to cause to sit.
To raise means to lift an object or to cause it to rise.

You will remember that some verbs take an object — as, "We wrote the *letter*." Here the noun *letter* is the ob-

ject of *wrote*. The verbs *lay*, *set*, and *raise* take an object, and in this way differ from *lie*, *sit*, and *rise*. Note that one always *lays*, *raises*, or *sets* some thing, some object. For example, "The stenographer *laid* her *notebook* on the table."

The fact that these verbs are similar makes it necessary to distinguish carefully their forms. For this reason they are given here in pairs:

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
lie	lay	lain
lay	laid	laid

It is incorrect to say —

1. I *laid* down to rest before going to the office.
2. We *have lain* your letter aside.

It is correct to say —

1. I *lay* down to rest before going to the office.
2. We *have laid* your letter aside.

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
sit	sat	sat
set	set	set

It is incorrect to say —

1. Mr. Smith *set* down to dictate a letter.
2. The salesman *sat* the box on the counter.
3. The secretary *has set* at his desk every day for months.

It is correct to say —

1. Mr. Smith *sat* down to dictate a letter.
2. The salesman *set* the box on the counter.
3. The secretary *has sat* at his desk every day for months.

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
rise	rose	risen
raise	raised	raised

It is incorrect to say —

1. Wages *raised* on the first of the month.
2. The successful accountant *had raised* from the ranks.
3. The price of clothing *had rose* steadily for two years.

It is correct to say —

1. Wages *rose* on the first day of the month.
2. The successful accountant *had risen* from the ranks.
3. The price of clothing *had risen* steadily for two years.

There are, however, a few expressions that do not follow the rule. They are called idioms and do not require explanation, because an idiom is a usage that has no grammatical explanation. Such expressions include the following: " The next day we *set out* on our journey " and " The sun *sets*."

Two other verbs are also commonly confused — *leave* and *let*. The meanings of these words, if kept in mind, should insure their correct use.

To leave means to go away from a person or an object.

To let means to permit.

Errors arise when you use *leave* where *let* should be employed. For example, it is incorrect to say —

1. *Leave* me go to the post office for you.
2. *Leave* him do the filing.
3. *Leave* him have a trial as stenographer.

It is correct to say —

1. *Let* me go to the post office for you.
2. *Let* him do the filing.
3. *Let* him have a trial as stenographer.

LESSON ELEVEN

Special Use of *Were*

Ordinarily *were* should be used with plural subjects to express past time, but it is also used to express a condition that is contrary to fact and to express a wish.

Conditions are generally introduced by the conjunction *if* — as, "If I were you, I should figure merchandise costs more closely." If the condition is contrary to the fact, *were* is used, even with singular subjects, such as *I*, *he*, *she*, *it*, and singular nouns. The following sentences illustrate this usage:

1. *If I were you* (but I am not), I should study both stenography and bookkeeping.
2. *If he were to blame for the error* (but he isn't), we would gladly replace the goods.
3. *If she were a graduate of a commercial course* (but she isn't), we would gladly give her the position.
4. *If it were possible to send you an exact duplicate of the chair* (but it isn't), we would gladly do it.
5. *If the young man were able to spell and use the typewriter well* (but he isn't), we would consent to keep him in our office.

Whenever the condition is an admitted fact, however, *was* should be used with singular subjects. The following sentences illustrate this point:

1. *If I was to blame for the loss* (and I was or may have been), I will pay for it.
2. *If he was not as well qualified for the position as his opponent* (and he was not), he should not have been elected.
3. *If Mr. Riley was slow at typewriting* (and he was), he could not hope to hold the position.

4. *If the letter was not properly paragraphed* (and it wasn't), it should not have been sent.

To express a wish, use *were* with *I*, *he*, *she*, *it*, and singular nouns. No trouble arises when plural subjects are used. Wishes are, of course, always contrary to fact, and this is why *were* should be used. Note the following illustrations:

1. I wish I *were* able to double my speed in shorthand.
2. Would that he *were* thoroughly prepared for the position!
3. We wish that it *were* possible to adjust the matter as you suggest in your letter of February 8.
4. We wish this last lot of shoes *were* of much better quality.

You should therefore be careful to avoid such errors as these: "If I *was* you," "If I *was* he," and "I wish I *was*" or "I wish it *was*." Remember also that it is incorrect to say, "You *was*" or "*Was* you." The pronoun *you* is plural in form and consequently requires a plural verb — as, "You *were*," "You *are*," etc.

Sometimes the word *if* is omitted, and *were* is made to stand first in the sentence — thus:

1. *Were your financial standing rated good in Bradstreet's*, we would grant you credit.
2. *Were the table as good as you represented*, I would not ask to return it.

Throughout this lesson your attention has been called to the special use of *were* with singular subjects, because ordinarily it is used with plural forms. You will therefore need to remember only the foregoing instructions. These may be summed up as follows:

1. Use *were* with singular subjects in clauses contrary to fact.
2. Use *were* with singular subjects in clauses expressing a wish.
3. Always use *were* with the subject *you* and with plural subjects.

LESSON TWELVE

Shall AND *Will*

A careful examination of sample letters from many large firms throughout the country reveals the fact that *shall* and *will* are used not only with great frequency but in nearly every case correctly. This shows that the writers have given careful thought to correct usage and that they recognize the value of these words in expressing shades of meaning. In oral speech perhaps even the most careful business men do not always distinguish between *shall* and *will*, but they are careful to do so in written speech. No good business house would desire to employ a stenographer who does not know how to use *shall* and *will* correctly.

There is nothing in the practical usage of these words which you cannot easily learn. In this lesson you will find the explanations and illustrations made very easy.

When you wish merely to express future time, use *shall* with *I* and *we*. The word is correctly used in the following sentences:

1. We *shall* welcome future orders from you.
2. We *shall* be glad to hear from you in a few days that our terms are satisfactory.
3. I *shall* be pleased to meet your representative and talk the matter over with him.
4. I *shall* be delighted to see you.

If you wish to express a promise or to show that you are determined to do something, use *will* with *I* and *we*. Thus "I *will*" is the natural and correct way to say, "I

am willing," " I promise," or " I have made up my mind." Note the correct use of *will* in these sentences:

1. Send the bookcase back, and we *will* refund your money.
2. We *will* extend your credit from thirty to sixty days.
3. If shipment has not already been made, we *will* see that the cabinet goes forward just as soon as possible.
4. The goods reached us in damaged condition, and unless you replace them we *will* place no more orders with your house.
5. I *will* send a tracer at once.

Do not say, " I *will be pleased* to call at your office for a personal interview " or " I *will be glad* to meet your cousin." In such sentences you are not making a promise or even expressing determination, for certainly nobody would promise or express a determination to be pleased or to be glad. Remember that the correct expressions are these: " I *shall be pleased* " and " I *shall be glad.*"

In questions always use *shall* with *I* and *we*. Remember to say, " *Shall I?* " or " *Shall we?* " Note the following illustrations:

1. *Shall* I answer the telegram from the Simmons Hardware Company?
2. *Shall* we address the letters to the company or to you personally?

You have already learned that you should use *shall* with *I* and *we* to express future time. With all other subjects, however, you should use *will* to express future time. The term " all other subjects " includes *you*, *he*, *she*, *it*, *John*, *people*, etc. Note carefully the use of *will* in the following sentences:

1. You *will* be pleased with Goodrich tires.
2. It *will* require three months to finish the course in business English.
3. The enclosed card when properly filled out *will* bring you our catalog.

If you wish to express determination that someone else shall do a thing, you should use *shall* instead of *will* with all subjects but *I* and *we*. A promise is expressed in the same way. The meaning is usually very clear. Note carefully the following illustrations:

1. They *shall* not pass. (Determination.)
2. You *shall* have your orders in the future. (Promise.)
3. If he will return the wheel, he *shall* have an exact duplicate. (Promise.)

In questions, when any subject other than *I* or *we* is used, choose the word that would occur in the answer. In this case you would have to pause a moment to think what the answer would be; then the difficulty quickly disappears. Note carefully the following illustrations:

1. *Will* you file these letters? I *will*. (Promise in the answer.)
2. *Shall* you welcome future orders from them? We *shall* welcome them.
3. If you do not finish your work, what excuse *shall* you give? I *shall* give none.

Should and *would* are, in general, used like *shall* and *will*, being the past tense forms of these verbs. *Would* may also be used to express habitual action — as, "The secretary *would* sit for hours at his desk." Both *should* and *would* are frequently used by business men and others in so-called softened statements — as, "I *should* advise an

early settlement" or "I *should* like to suggest a better plan of adjustment." Finally, *should* is often used to express duty or obligation — as, "We believe that you *should* make a small payment at least each month."

In clauses introduced by *that*, expressed or understood, when the subject is different from that in the principal statement, the same auxiliary should be used that would be employed if the clause were made a separate sentence — for example, "Henry says that I *will* find my new work interesting." Here *will* is the correct word, because if the clause were made an independent sentence, it would be stated as follows: "Henry said, 'You *will* find your new work interesting.'"

Those who confuse *shall* and *will* usually also confuse *can* and *may*. The distinction between these two words is very simple. When you wish to imply ability, use *can;* when you wish to imply permission or the possibility of an event's taking place, use *may*. Thus when you say, "I *can* go," you mean you are able to go; when you say, "You *can* go," you mean that the person to whom you speak is able to go; when you say, "I *may* go," you mean there is a possibility of your going; and when you say, "You *may* go," you mean either that the person to whom you speak has your permission to go or that there is a possibility of his going.

In all cases where *can* is used in the present time, use *could* in the past; where *may* is used in the present, use *might* in the past.

LESSON THIRTEEN

Agreement

A verb must agree with its subject in number — that is, if a subject is singular in *meaning*, the verb must be singular; if plural, the verb must be plural. Ordinarily, you will recognize, without difficulty, a subject as singular or plural in meaning, but in some cases you may easily be mistaken. In order to assist you, some of the essential facts of the agreement of the verb with its subject are presented in this lesson.

1. Two singular subjects connected by *and* or *both — and* take a plural verb — as, "Springgate and Geer *are* partners." If, however, the words are intended to be singular in meaning, they take a singular verb — as, "Springgate and Geer *is* the name of the firm."

2. Two singular subjects connected by *or*, *either — or*, or *neither — nor* take a singular verb — thus:

1. Miss Porter or Miss Condon *is* ready to make copies of the letter.
2. Either stenography or bookkeeping *is* a profitable occupation.
3. Neither the salesman nor the customer *has* any cause for complaint.

Always make sure that you use the right words in pairs; namely, *either — or* and *neither — nor*. For example, you should not use *or* with *neither* in such expressions as "I had *neither* book *or* pencil." This of course should be stated as follows: "I had *neither* book *nor* pencil." It is also a very common error to use *nor* after *not* in such

sentences as "We did *not* see Miller *nor* Jones." This should be stated thus: "We did *not* see Miller *or* Jones."

If the pronoun *I* or *we* is used in a compound subject connected by these words or by *or* alone, it will according to the order of courtesy stand second, and the verb must agree with it in number.

1. Neither Mr. Stone nor *we are* under obligations to him.
2. Either she or *I am* to blame for the delay.

However, in the latter case it is better to say "Either she is to blame for the delay or I am."

3. If one subject is joined to another by such expressions as *with, in addition to, as well as*, or *also*, the verb should agree with the first, which is in fact the real subject. This contention is supported by the best authorities, including Wood and Woolley. Note that even the punctuation indicates that these subjects are disjoined and do not form a compound subject.

1. *Money*, as well as mind, *counts* for much in business.
2. *Mr. Reed*, in addition to three other friends of mine, *has signed* the contract.
3. *Miss Huff*, with her friend, *is waiting* in the office.
4. *This young man*, together with his brother, *has learned* of the increased demand for stenographers.

4. A collective noun is one that stands for a group or class considered as a unit. When the group is considered as a whole, the subject takes a singular verb — as, "The *committee is* ready to report." If, however, the individuals are thought of as acting individually or holding different opinions, etc., the verb must be plural — as, "The *committee were* by no means of one mind concerning the

report." Perhaps the easiest way to learn to use collective nouns correctly is to make a note of sentences in which they are used by reputable business firms and by good present-day writers. Here are a few examples, which you should study until the difficulty disappears:

1. *The Guaranty Trust Company* of New York *was* the only institution in the state accepting sterling drafts payable at a future date.
2. Our *firm was* doing the most prosperous business in its history.
3. The *firm were* unable to agree on a plan of advertising.
4. *Jones & Co. continues* its conservative investment policy.
5. *T. Morgan & Son owes* him $3000.
6. *Oakford & Fahnestock is* a large concern.

5. *Fractions* and the words *plenty*, *variety*, *abundance*, and *rest* are generally followed by the word *of*. In these cases if *of* is followed by a plural noun, use a plural verb; if followed by a singular noun, use a singular verb — thus:[1]

1. Seven eighths of the farm *is* timber land.
2. One half of the company's employees *are* mere boys.
3. An abundance of peaches *were* shipped to us.
4. A variety of apples *were* sold in my store.

Sometimes a subject plural in form represents a single thing and consequently takes a singular verb—thus:[2]

1. *Fifty dollars is* too much.
2. *Ten days is* too long to wait for the money.

When the word *number* is preceded by *a*, use a plural verb; when preceded by *the*, use a singular verb:

[1] Scott: *Practical English*, page 21.
[2] Woolley: *Written English*, page 189.

1. *A number* of letters *were* on my desk.
2. *The number* of letters on my desk *was* seven.

Read the following sentences carefully until you understand them thoroughly. Compare them with the foregoing illustrations.

1. Miss Stone and I *are* employed at John Wanamaker's store in Philadelphia.
2. Neither Miss Hess nor I *am* going to resign.
3. A variety of oranges *were* offered for sale.
4. The number of girls employed in the office *is* ten.
5. A number of clerks *were* discharged.
6. Four fifths of the estate *is* Mr. Wright's share.
7. The firm *agrees* to pay all outstanding bills.
8. The jury *finds* for the plaintiff.
9. The Curtis Publishing Company *is* a well-known firm.
10. A multitude of visitors *go* to Springfield every year to visit the tomb of Lincoln.
11. Denver, as well as other western cities, *has* become known in every part of the country for its healthful climate.
12. The Chalmers Motor Company, as well as a number of other manufacturers of cars, *has* its headquarters in Detroit.
13. Ten dollars *is* too much to pay for a hat.
14. One fourth of the time *is* devoted to the study of business English.
15. Neither Mr. Wray nor Miss Perry *has* finished the course in commercial correspondence.
16. The entire family *were* opposed to John's leaving school.

LESSON FOURTEEN

AGREEMENT (*Continued*)

1. Sometimes when a noun stands between the subject and the verb, it requires care to make the verb agree with the real subject. For example, take the sentence "*One* of his customers *is* dissatisfied." Since *one* is the subject, it would be incorrect to use *are dissatisfied.*

Read these sentences several times and observe that the subjects and verbs in italics agree in number:

1. *Part* of the supplies *has been shipped.*
2. *None* of the clerks *was permitted* to leave his work unfinished.
3. Any *one* of us *is* eligible to enter the contest.
4. A *box* of handkerchiefs *has been sent* to you.
5. *Either* of the boys *is* qualified to take a position as secretary.
6. Every *one* of the soldiers *was* anxious to go to Europe.
7. *Each* of the boys *comes* from a good home.
8. *Everybody* who has graduated *has taken* business English.

2. The relative pronouns *who*, *which*, and *that* are singular subjects when their antecedents are singular, and plural when their antecedents are plural. For example, take the sentence, "He is one of those conservative men who do not take a chance on the stock market." Here *who* refers to *men*, for the speaker evidently means to mention a certain class of men; namely, "men who do not take a chance on the stock market." Since the word *men* is plural, *who* is plural and consequently takes a plural verb. You must be very careful, therefore, in writing sentences of this kind to determine just what the antecedent of the pronoun is.

Note carefully whether the verb in each clause is singular or plural and explain:

1. Mr. Clark is one of those men who *talk* incessantly about their investments.
2. Marshall Field is one of the few firms which *are* known throughout the country.
3. Salesmanship is the most interesting of the many subjects that *have been added* to the curriculum.
4. Miss Dougherty is one of those stenographers who never *make* a mistake.

3. There are at least two contracted forms that cause considerable trouble; namely, *don't* and *doesn't*. The word *don't* is a contraction of *do not* and, therefore, can be rightly used only to take the place of that expression. *Do not* is used with plural subjects and with *I*. You must be careful, then, to use the contracted form *don't* only with these subjects. It is correct to say *I don't, we don't, you don't, they don't*, and *men don't*, but you should not say *he don't, she don't, it don't*, and *John don't*. No one would think of saying *he do not* and *she do not*. You must not, therefore, say *he don't* and *she don't*. As it is right to say *he does not, she does not, it does not*, and *John does not*, you may say *he doesn't, she doesn't, it doesn't*, etc. These errors are so common that every one should make a special effort to use *he* and *she* with *doesn't*—as, "He *doesn't* study his bookkeeping thoroughly enough" and "She *doesn't* like music."

The following sentences contain the word *don't* used correctly with *I, we, you*, and plural subjects:

1. I *don't* give any man as reference unless I have his full permission.

2. We *don't* find typewriting difficult.
3. They *don't* care for the customer's welfare.
4. Business men *don't* regret the money they spend on advertising.

The following sentences contain *doesn't* correctly used with *he*, *she*, *it*, *who* (singular), and singular subjects. Of course, when *who* refers to more than one, it is used with *don't* — as, "Those *who don't* try to save will not accumulate much money." As about nine tenths of the mistakes occur in the use of *doesn't*, you should read these sentences until you cannot forget them:

1. *He doesn't* understand the meaning of debit and credit.
2. *She doesn't* understand drafts, invoices, and bills of lading.
3. *Miss Pike doesn't* like her present position.

4. Two other very crude errors commonly occur in unguarded conversation; namely, *hain't* and *ain't*. In order to avoid them, you should find the correct contractions. Almost always the proper expression will be one of these: *are not*, *aren't*, *have not*, *haven't*, *has not*, *hasn't*, *is not*, or *isn't*. Whenever you find that you have used *hain't* or *ain't*, correct yourself immediately. Keep this up until you can use the right form without effort. Remember that the ability to speak good English is a part of your stock in trade.

LESSON FIFTEEN

Verbs Commonly Confused

It is sometimes claimed that the finer shades of meaning between certain similar words are gradually disappearing and that it is not worth while to acquire, by constant effort, the habit of distinguishing them. Careful writers, however, do not abandon useful distinctions so freely as this would imply. Therefore, if you wish to write English correctly and effectively, you must take as your standard the work of the best present-day writers and the correspondence of the best business concerns in the country. All definitions are taken from the *New Standard Dictionary*.[1] The following list of words includes a number that reputable writers and business men still use with great care:

ADVISE, INFORM

Advise. To offer an opinion to, by way of common counsel; give suggestion or advice to concerning a course or act; counsel; warn — as, *to advise* a friend to reform.

Inform. To tell (a person) that of which he had no knowledge before; to impart information to. (1) To communicate news to; to notify; to apprise; etc. (2) To communicate instruction to; etc.

Advise is most appropriately used in the sense of *to counsel* or *to give suggestion concerning a course or an act.* It is correct to use it in letters in the sense of *to tell*, but *inform* is better.

AFFECT, EFFECT

Affect. 1. To have an effect upon; act upon; lay hold of; impress; influence; change — as, "Worry *affects* the mind." 2. To act

[1] Copyright by Funk & Wagnalls Company, New York and London.

upon the emotions or sensibilities of; to touch; to move — as, "The audience was deeply *affected*."

Effect. To be the cause or producer of; bring about; especially to bring to an issue of full success; accomplish; achieve.

Effect, meaning to accomplish, must be carefully distinguished from *affect*, meaning to influence. The following sentences illustrate the correct use of the words:

1. Labor unions have *effected* two great reforms — higher wages and shorter hours.
2. Improper working conditions *affect* the health of working people.
3. Prices were greatly *affected* by an oversupply of commodities.

CALCULATE, INTEND

Calculate. Tc compute mathematically; ascertain by computation; to find out beforehand the time or circumstances of; to reckon.

Intend. To set the mind on to accomplish; be intent upon; have in view as a purpose to be effected; plan; design.

Calculate should never be used in the sense of *intend*. It is correct to say, "I *intend* to apply for the position," but not "I *calculate* to apply for the position." To use *calculate* or *reckon* in the sense of *think*, *suppose*, or *believe* is colloquial and therefore to be avoided.

DISCOMMODE, INCOMMODE

These words mean substantially the same; namely, to cause inconvenience to; annoy. *Incommode* is, however, considered the better form of the two, but *inconvenience* is usually better than either.

DISCOVER, INVENT

Discover. To get first sight or knowledge of, as something previously unknown or unperceived; find out; ascertain; espy; detect.

Invent. To find out as a new means, instrument, or method; contrive by ingenuity.

One *discovers* what already existed but was previously unknown, and *invents* some new means, instrument, or method — thus:

1. The explorer *discovered* a river.
2. Many useful office machines have recently been *invented.*

EXPECT, SUSPECT, GUESS

Expect. To look forward to as certain or probable; feel assured of before the event; anticipate in thought.

Suspect. 1. To imagine to exist; to have some though insufficient grounds for inferring; also, to have a vague notion of the existence of, without adequate proof; mistrust; surmise; often followed by an object clause — as, "I *suspect* that he is deceiving me." 2. To believe to be possibly guilty.

Guess. To judge, estimate, or conclude from slight indications or on mere probable grounds; anticipate or presume without sure knowledge or adequate evidence; hazard a supposition about; conjecture — as, to *guess* a person's age.

Do not use *guess* for *expect*, because the latter is used in speaking of future events looked forward to as probable or certain. When you have some though insufficient grounds for inferring a thing, use *suspect*. *Expect* cannot be used in speaking of the past. Note the following examples:

1. We *expect* a shipment of new refrigerators from our factory within a week or two.
2. I *suspect* that he did not address the letter carefully.
3. Do not permit your customer to *suspect* that you are deceiving him.
4. We could not even *guess* whether prices would advance or fall.

GRADUATE, WAS GRADUATED

Graduate. To admit to or take an academic degree at the end of a course of instruction, especially at a college or university. The institution graduates the candidate at the end of a course of in-

struction. The man is therefore *graduated*, and objection is often made to "He graduated," but this double meaning is frequent, and in this word well established.

The foregoing discussion is sufficient authority for the use of the expression "Mr. Hunt *graduated*," as well as "Mr. Hunt *was graduated*."

IMPLICATE, INVOLVE

Implicate. To bring into intimate connection; affect; involve; hence, to show or prove to be involved or concerned in — as, *to implicate* in the plot by evidence.

Involve. 1. To draw into entanglement literally or figuratively; implicate; embroil — as, *to involve* a nation in war. 2. To include or necessitate as a part or adjunct; have as a result or logical consequence; imply; comprise; etc.

While these words are similar in meaning, it should be remembered that *implicate* is used in a bad sense — as, *to implicate* in a crime, plot, conspiracy, etc. *Involve* does not imply any unfavorable connection.

1. Evidence was submitted that *implicated* several wholesale dealers in a plot to raise the price of clothing.
2. Mr. Drew was not *involved* in any controversies with his competitors.

IRRITATE, AGGRAVATE, EXASPERATE

Irritate. 1. To excite ill temper or impatience in; make petulant; fret; exasperate — as, *to be irritated* by the prattle of children. 2. To excite physically; inflame or cause reaction in by stimulation — as, *to irritate* the skin by electricity or friction.

Aggravate. 1. To add weight or intensity to; to make heavier, worse, or more burdensome; also, to make more heinous; increase the guilt of — as, "Sickness *aggravates* the ills of poverty." 2. *Colloq.* To provoke greatly; exasperate; annoy — "He *aggravated* me beyond measure." 3. To increase inflammation in; irritate — as, *to aggravate* a wound.

Exasperate. 1. To rouse and roughen the temper of; irritate

exceedingly; excite great anger in; enrage. 2. To make bitter or grievous; aggravate as in grievousness or malignancy; embitter; intensify; inflame.

Remember, therefore, that *aggravate* should not be used for *irritate* or *exasperate*, for to use it in the sense of *to provoke greatly* or *to exasperate* is colloquial. Never use colloquial forms.

1. Mr. Holt's carelessness *irritates* his employer.
2. The attempt to bring colored laborers from the South *aggravated* the situation.
3. Tried by unfavorable circumstances, he became thoroughly *exasperated*.

LEARN, TEACH

Learn. To acquire knowledge of or skill in by observation, study or instruction; become informed about.

Teach. To impart knowledge or information to by means of lessons; give instruction to; guide by precept or example; train; educate; discipline; counsel — as, *to teach* a child.

If you remember that *to learn* means to acquire knowledge, and *to teach* means to impart, you will have no difficulty in using these words correctly.

1. It is not difficult *to learn* how to use the mimeograph.
2. The company sent an agent *to teach* him how to drive the car.

MEND, FIX

Mend. To restore to a sound or serviceable condition, as something broken, worn, or defaced; supply deficiencies or defects in; patch up; repair — as, *to mend* shoes.

Fix. To fasten, attach, or secure firmly; to set or place permanently; make firm or secure.

Do not use *fix* in the sense of *mend* or *repair*.

1. Our workman *fixed* the rod in the proper position.
2. The shoemaker *mended* the shoes.

PURPOSE, PROPOSE

Purpose. To have or place before oneself as a purpose or aim; have a fixed determination to do or attain; resolve; intend; design.

Propose. To offer, as a plan or scheme, for acceptance or consideration; present as a candidate; put forward — as, *to propose* a topic or question for discussion.

1. The manager *proposed* a plan for the reorganization of the company.
2. A salesman sometimes *purposes* to improve his personality.

LESSON SIXTEEN

Adjectives and Adverbs

Most mistakes in the use of adjectives and adverbs are due to the violation of certain very simple rules of good usage. In this lesson your attention will be directed to the most important of these.

A, *an*, and *the*, sometimes called articles, are merely adjectives. You learned in the grammar grades that *a* should be used before a noun beginning with a consonant sound and *an* before a noun beginning with a vowel sound. According to Webster, *a* should be used in the following: *a unit*, *a eulogy*, *a oneness*, *a history*, *a historian*, *a one*, and *a hotel*. *An* should be used before *honest*, *hour*, etc. These illustrations show that whether *a* or *an* is to be used depends upon the sound of the following word and not upon its first letter.

If two or more adjectives modify the same noun, the article should be used before the first adjective only — as, *a black and red* ribbon (one ribbon); *a red, white, and blue* flag.

Sometimes, however, two or more adjectives modify different nouns, only one of which is expressed, the other being understood. In such cases the article should be repeated before each adjective — thus:

1. *The* carbon and *the* letterpress copies are lying on your desk. (Two different copies)
2. *The* express and *the* postal money orders were received. (Two different money orders)
3. Have you *a* large and *a* small envelope? (Two different envelopes)

When two nouns refer to the same person or thing, the article should be used before the first noun only — thus:

The secretary and treasurer was not at the office.

When the nouns refer to different persons or things, you should repeat the article before each — thus:

1. *The* secretary and *the* treasurer were not at the office.
2. *The* office manager and *the* stenographer have been selected.

Sometimes the nouns are so closely related in thought that they may be considered as a whole. In such cases the article need be used only before the first — thus:

1. The bread and butter
2. The pen and ink

This AND *That*

This and *that* are two very simple words that cause a great deal of trouble. The difficulty arises from the failure to remember that each has a distinct plural form and that the plurals should be used only with plural nouns. The plural of *this* is *these*, and the plural of *that* is *those*. It is, therefore, incorrect to say *these kind*, *these sort*, *those kind*, and *those sort*. You should say *this kind*, *this sort*, *that kind*, and *that sort*. If, however, there is more than one kind or sort, you should use the following expressions: *these kinds*, *these sorts*, *those kinds*, and *those sorts*. Avoid the use of *a* in such expressions as " this *kind of a* person." It is better to say " this *kind of* person."

A more serious error, however, is the use of the objective pronoun *them* as if it were an adjective to take the place of *these* or *those* — *them papers*, *them typewriters*, etc.

Another crude error should be mentioned here. You doubtless have heard the expressions *this here* and *that there* in such expressions as "*This here* book is torn" and "*That there* letter is neatly written." The words *here* and *there* should be omitted.

The following sentences contain *this* and *that* correctly used. Read them several times until you are able to use the correct expressions without effort.

1. I like *this kind* of stationery.
2. We have ordered *these kinds* of envelopes.
3. *This sort* of work does not appeal to him.
4. Among other things we have for sale *these sorts* of utensils.
5. *That* machine is not in good repair. (Not *That there* machine)
6. I like *this kind*. (Not *these kind*)
7. *These kinds* of typewriters include almost every make.
8. *This kind* of letterhead is of the most attractive style.

COMPOUND ADJECTIVES

When compound expressions are used to form adjectives standing before the noun they modify, they should be written with a hyphen — as, "a *fifty-foot* lot," "a *sixty-day* note," etc. The following expressions containing compound adjectives are commonly found in business correspondence: [1]

a fifteen-day note	labor-saving machine
a two-letter series	ready-made clothes
mail-order department	all-wool suits
two-foot rule	hand-made laces

Compound numerals should always be written with a hyphen whether used as adjectives or nouns — as, "*thirty-one* yards," "*fifty-five* cents," etc.

[1] *Style Book of the Government Printing Office*, pages 91, 92.

Compound adjectives containing the words *above*, *ill*, *well*, and *so* are written with a hyphen when they stand before the word they modify, but not otherwise. For example, we may say, "a *well-educated* man" or "The man is *well educated*." But an adverb ending with *ly* is not usually joined to the adjective which it modifies — as, "a *neatly written* advertisement."

The following compounds are so frequently used that you should note them carefully:

above-named	well-educated
above-mentioned	well-informed
ill-natured	well-known
ill-bred	so-called

Note also that the following are written with a hyphen:

half-hearted	first-class
half-witted	second-class
whole-souled	high-class
whole-hearted	high-grade
first-rate	high-flown
self-controlled	high-handed

Sometimes a group of words are used together as an adjective. In such cases they should be written with hyphens — thus:

ready-to-wear clothes
up-to-date styles
made-to-order garments
out-of-town customers
heart-to-heart talk

Read the following sentences containing compound adjectives and learn to use a hyphen in all such expressions.

1. Mr. Graves gave us his *thirty-day* note.
2. We still have on hand a number of *all-wool* dresses.
3. Browning & King handle *high-class* clothing.
4. Mr. Wray has an *up-to-date* print shop.
5. A *first-class* salesman should make a large salary.
6. Our *mail-order* department is most efficient.
7. Mr. Hert was graduated from a *well-known* business college.
8. *Amber-colored* goggles will protect your eyes.
9. We call your attention to our sale of ladies' *ready-to-wear* garments.
10. Our store provides many accommodations for *out-of-town* customers.

LESSON SEVENTEEN

Adjectives and Adverbs (*Continued*)

PLACING OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

Adjectives and adverbs should be so placed that there can be no doubt as to what they modify. Generally they should stand as close as possible to the word or phrase to which they belong. Perhaps the most common error is the misplacing of the adverbs *only*, *merely*, *almost*, and similar words. Note the errors in the following sentences:

1. I *only* had three dollars.
2. Sickness *merely* was an excuse for his absence from work.
3. Mr. Hughes *almost* answered all the questions.
4. Mr. Dunn *nearly* missed all the problems in commercial arithmetic.

It is interesting to note how much more effective these sentences become when the adverbs are correctly placed — thus:

1. I had *only* three dollars.
2. Sickness was *merely* an excuse for his absence from work.
3. Mr. Hughes answered *almost* all the questions.
4. Mr. Dunn missed *nearly* all the problems in commercial arithmetic.

THE DOUBLE NEGATIVE

Such words as *no*, *not*, *never*, *nothing*, *none*, and *nowhere* are called negatives. The words *hardly* and *scarcely* are also treated as such.

The following sentences are written correctly. Note that each has but one negative:

1. The new clerk did *not* do his work well.
2. Miss Holt *hadn't* any money for expenses.
3. I saw *no* one in the office. (Not "I *didn't* see *nobody.*")
4. After that I *never* told anyone a lie.
5. Mr. Brown *hadn't* invested more than two thousand dollars.
6. The student *couldn't* post the items from the journal correctly. (Not *couldn't hardly*)
7. We *couldn't* see anybody at the secretary's desk. (Not "We *couldn't* see *nobody.*")
8. There was *scarcely* any paper for the exercise in discounts. (Not "There was *not scarcely no* paper.")

Two negatives should not be used in the same sentence. For example it is incorrect to say —

1. I *couldn't* see *nothing.*
2. We *never* told *nobody.*
3. I *can't hardly* write.
4. I *never* did *nothing* to *nobody.*
5. Miss Hartnett *couldn't scarcely* find enough paper.
6. I *can't,* I *don't* think.

Such sentences as the foregoing contain the so-called *double negative,* which should be carefully avoided.

It is a mistake to use *never* as an ordinary negative to take the place of *not.* It may, however, be used occasionally to express emphatic negation — as, "*Never* fear." It is incorrect to say, "I *never* brought my bank book." Say rather, "I did *not* bring my bank book."

The following sentences are written correctly, each containing but a single negative. Read them carefully until you are thoroughly familiar with the correct expressions.

1. We had *no* money to spare.
2. Miss McConnel did *nothing* but get out the day's correspondence.
3. The boy could *hardly* speak.
4. I *don't* say anything while taking dictation.
5. There *wasn't* anyone who could forecast the market.
6. There was *scarcely* enough ink in the wells.
7. The children could *hardly* endure work in the factory.
8. We could *never* forget that day in New York.
9. I *didn't* tell anything that was in the letters dictated to me.
10. I think the trial balance will *not* reveal any errors. (Not "The trial balance will *not* reveal any errors, I don't think.")

MISUSE OF *yet* AND SIMILAR WORDS

Yet is a very useful little word with ten distinct meanings. It should be used with discrimination and never dangled meaninglessly at the end of a sentence — as, "Here is the Bardon check *yet.*" The same may be said of *already*, *once*, *however* and similar words.

Avoid the purposeless use of such words as *again*, *then*, *why*, *well*, etc. at the beginning of sentences. They may be correctly used occasionally, but are an offense if too frequently repeated.

LESSON EIGHTEEN

Confusion of Adjectives and Adverbs

Many errors in usage arise from the confusion of adjectives and adverbs. In order to prevent this, you must understand thoroughly the difference between these parts of speech.

In general, adjectives belong to the subject or object, and adverbs to the predicate. Sometimes, however, an adverb modifies an adjective or another adverb — as, "A *remarkably* effective sales letter was sent to all our customers." In this illustration, *remarkably* modifies the adjective *effective*. If you wish to describe or limit the subject, use an adjective — as, "The salesman's voice sounds *harsh*." Here *harsh* modifies *voice*. If you wish to indicate the manner of an action, use an adverb — as, "He spoke *harshly* to his customer." Here *harshly* modifies *spoke*.

Most verbs express action of some kind and are, therefore, followed by adverbs. There are, however, a few that do not express action, and these are followed usually by adjectives telling something about the subject. These verbs are *be*, *become*, *look*, *appear*, *seem*, etc.[1] The five named should be memorized. Note carefully the following sentences in which adjectives are used after these words:

1. Your investment is *safe*.
2. The surplus fund became very *large*.
3. Our business men look *prosperous*.

[1] Scott: *Practical English*, pages 93–94.

4. A successful salesman appears *happy.*
5. An investment in Liberty Bonds seems *desirable.*

Certain verbs related to the senses — such as *sound, feel, taste,* and *smell* — also take adjectives after them — thus:

1. The customer's complaint sounds *reasonable.*
2. Miss Price felt *happy* in her new position.
3. All Queen Brand Jam tastes *sweet.*
4. The flowers she had for sale smelled *fragrant.*

Sometimes the verbs *grow, turn,* and *fall* take adjectives after them. Note carefully the following sentences:

1. Mr. Scott's creditors grew *impatient.*
2. The grass turned *brown.*
3. All of our clerks fell *ill.*

Even verbs that express action may take an adjective after them when the sense requires it — as, "The sun rose *bright* and *warm.*" There are, however, not many cases of this kind.

Study carefully the distinctions in the use of the following words and, if necessary, consult the dictionary:

Good, well. As a rule *good* is used to describe a person or thing, while *well* tells how something is done. In other words, *good* is an adjective and *well* an adverb. Sometimes, however, *well* is used as an adjective to describe a state of health — as, "Our superintendent is *well* today." The following sentences illustrate the correct use of these words:

1. Our department has a *good* manager.
2. Every employee should do his work *well.*

Most, almost. *Almost* is an adverb; *most*, an adjective or an adverb. Use *almost* in the sense of *nearly*. *Most*, as an adverb, means *in the highest degree* or *chiefly*. It is therefore wrong to say *most always*, *most any*, etc. These words are correctly used in the following sentences:

1. The company's resources were *almost* exhausted.
2. *Most* municipal bonds are desirable as an investment.

Near, nearly. If you remember that *nearly* is the adverbial form, you should have no difficulty with these words. Do not say, "Brown is *not near* so successful in business as Jones." The correct expression is "Brown is *not nearly* so successful in business as Jones."

Previous, previously. Remember that *previously* is the adverbial form. Do not say *previously to that time*, *previously to June* 10, etc., but *previous to that time*, *previous to June* 10, etc.

Bad, badly. *Badly* should be used only as an adverb, but sometimes it is difficult to decide whether an adverb or an adjective should be used in a given case. For example, should one say, "The mail clerk had a severe cold and felt *bad*" or "The mail clerk had a severe cold and felt *badly*"? Grammarians disagree but in truth one should say neither. The correct expression, decreed alike by good English and good breeding, is "The mail clerk had a severe cold and felt *ill*." Broadly speaking, use *bad* in referring to morals and *badly* in referring to the emotions. The following sentences illustrate the correct use of these words:

1. The cashier's conduct was *bad*.

2. The secretary feels *badly* toward some of his competitors because they have taken unfair advantage of him.

One of the most common errors in English is the use of *badly* for *very much* or *greatly*. Do not say, "I wanted to make the sale *badly*."

All right. The expression *all right* should always be written as two words. There is no such word as *alright*.

All ready, already. In the first of these expressions *ready* is an adjective meaning prepared or supplied with what is needed — as, "Are the papers *all ready* to be filed?" *Already* is an adverb meaning *beforehand* or *by this time* or *the time mentioned* — as, "The fund has *already* been exhausted."

The following sentences will show some other common errors in the use of adjectives and adverbs. In the second column you will find the correct expressions.

Incorrect	*Correct*
We are *desirous of* having a conference with you.	We *desire* to have a conference with you.
We wrote *something* more than fifty letters.	We wrote *somewhat* more than fifty letters.
Miss Meyers bought an *awfully* pretty hat.	Miss Meyers bought a *very* (or unusually or remarkably) pretty hat.
Various customers asked to see our new styles of spring suits.	*Many* (or several) customers asked to see our new styles of spring suits.
We have sold *quite a few* of these suits.	We have sold *several* (or many) of these suits.

Incorrect	*Correct*
We have for sale a number of *elegant* fifteen-dollar dresses.	We have for sale a number of *beautiful* (or handsome or fashionable) fifteen-dollar dresses.
Our sales fell off *terribly* in August.	Our sales fell off *a great deal* (or greatly) in August.
The firm has sold *over* fifty machines.	The firm has sold *more than* fifty machines.
Mr. White hunted *all over* for the check.	Mr. White hunted *everywhere* for the check.
Relative to your offer of March 10.	*With reference to* your offer of March 10.

LESSON NINETEEN

Comparison

Most adjectives and many adverbs have three forms to denote different degrees of comparison — as, *large, larger, largest; soon, sooner, soonest.* The first form, which does not really suggest comparison at all, is commonly called the *positive degree;* the second, the *comparative degree;* and the third, the *superlative degree.*

The comparative degree should be used in comparing two things or sets of things — thus:

1. A government bond is *safer* than a corporation bond.
2. Our prices are *lower* than yours.

The superlative degree should be used in comparing three or more things — thus:

1. Liberty bonds are the *safest* investment in the world.
2. Lumber reached its *highest* price in 1920.

The greater number of adjectives are compared by adding *er* or *est* to the positive. There are exceptions, as will be noted later in the chapter. A common error among careless speakers is to use the superlative degree for the comparative — as, "This is the *best* of the two," "Henry is the *tallest* of the two." Even writers of good reputation occasionally let themselves fall into this error, but that does not make it any the less an error and you should guard against it. Say, "This is the *better* of the two," "Henry is the *taller* of the two."

Many adjectives and adverbs are compared by the use

of *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least* as the case may require — as, *beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful.* This method is used when the addition of *er* or *est* would not be pleasing in sound.[1] Carpenter says that the ear alone should decide which ought to be used.[2] Some of the most noted writers of prose, however, have violated this rule. Thackeray used *handsomest, immensest,* and *wonderfulest,* and Ruskin *patientest,* and *sorrowfulest.* You will find, however, that most modern writers use *more* and *most* whenever it will prevent a series of harsh or unpleasant sounds. *Most handsome, most immense, most wonderful, most patient,* and *most sorrowful* are the better forms.

Adverbs ending in *ly* are compared by the use of *more* and *most* — as, *slowly, more slowly, most slowly.* Most adjectives in *ly* — such as *lowly, friendly, lovely,* and *manly* — form the comparative and superlative by the addition of *er* and *est.*

The following words do not admit of comparison: *double, square, round, horizontal, perpendicular, perfect, ideal,* and *infallible.* If an object is square or round, it is inaccurate to say that it could be more square or round. You should say *more nearly square, more nearly round, more nearly perfect,* etc.

Many errors consist in the use of double comparison. You have no doubt heard the following expressions: *worser, lesser,* etc. Of course, the correct forms are *worse* and *less.* The double forms *furthermore, furthermost,* and *uttermost,* however, are approved. The expressions *more preferable, more superior,* and *most favorite* involve double comparison, and hence should be avoided.

[1] Baskerville and Sewell: *School Grammar,* page 87.

[2] Carpenter: *Principles of English Grammar,* page 103.

Some adjectives are compared irregularly. The following forms should be carefully learned:

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
bad, ill	worse	worst
good, well	better	best
far	farther (distance)	farthest
———	further (additional)	furthest
late	later	latest
———	latter	last
little	less	least
many, much	more	most
near	nearer	nearest, next
old	older	oldest
	elder	eldest

Latter and **former** are now generally used in speaking of two things, the *latter* being the one mentioned second and the *former* the one mentioned first. You should, however, use these forms only when necessary, as it is easy to acquire the habit of overworking them.

So-called mixed comparisons should generally be avoided. For example, it is incorrect to say, "Mr. Jones is as good a salesman if not better than Mr. Brown." Certainly no careful writer would say, "Mr. Jones is as good a salesman than Mr. Brown." Say, "Mr. Jones is as good a salesman as Mr. Brown, if not better." It is also an error to say, "John Wanamaker was one of the greatest, if not the greatest, merchant this country has produced." You should say, "John Wanamaker was one of the greatest merchants this country has produced, if not the greatest." The mixed comparison is thus avoided by the transposition of the phrases or clauses.

When one thing or one group of things is compared with another of the same sort, they must be clearly separated in meaning. This can be done whenever necessary by adding the word *other* — thus:

1. Amber-colored goggles will protect your eyes from the sun better than any *other* glasses.
2. Miss Young is more accurate than any *other* person in the auditing department.

Since amber-colored goggles are a kind of glasses, it is necessary to add the word *other*.

There is a great deal of uncertainty about the correct use of *as* — *as* and *so* — *as*. Good usage favors the use of *as* — *as* in equal comparisons and *so* — *as* in unequal comparisons.[1] Note the following sentences:

1. Shaw-Walker's trade is *as* large *as* ours.
2. Shaw-Walker's trade is not *so* large *as* ours.

Notice that unequal comparisons are made by the addition of a negative. You may, therefore, find it easy to remember that *so* — *as* should be used in preference to *as* — *as* in sentences where a negative occurs. Read these sentences carefully until you can use the correct expression without difficulty:

1. Mr. Stone is *not so* careful *as* his partner in selecting his investments.
2. The supply of raw cotton is *scarcely so* great *as* that of 1920.
3. *No one* else is *so* well known to business men *as* Mr. Schwab.
4. We have *not* received *so* many orders during the present month *as* we did last year.
5. *Neither* of the applicants was *so* well prepared for the work as Mr. Taylor.

[1] McLean, Blaisdell, and Morrow: *Steps in English*, Book II, page 216.

LESSON TWENTY

Similar Adjectives and Adverbs Distinguished

Since every person should acquire an accurate and varied vocabulary, your attention is again directed to the study of certain words commonly misused. It is, of course, impossible to present here a complete list of similar words. They constitute a study of importance and would require a large book. The intention of the lesson is to present a few of the most common illustrations and to show how such words can be studied, with the aid of a good dictionary. All definitions are taken from the *New Standard Dictionary*.[1]

CONTINUAL, CONTINUOUS

Continual. Renewed in regular succession; often repeated; very frequent — as, "*continual* interruptions."

Continuous. Connected, extended, or prolonged without separation or interruption of sequence; unbroken; uninterrupted; unintermitted.

Continuous describes that which is absolutely without pause; *continual*, that which often intermits, but as regularly begins again.

1. *Continual* interruptions made it impossible to complete the work according to contract.
2. Mr. Johnson's connections with this concern have covered fifteen years of *continuous* service.

FEW, LESS

Few. Small or limited in number; not many; only a small number of.

Less. 1. Smaller, as in capacity, quantity, or scope; not so large,

[1] Copyright by Funk & Wagnalls Company, New York and London.

great, or much; used as the comparative of *little* — as, "*less* time." 2. Lacking full number or quantity; smaller by subtraction or omission — as, "a year *less* a month." 3. Of smaller import, of slighter consequence; inferior.

Use *few* when speaking of numbers; *less*, when speaking of capacity, quantity, or scope.

1. We have received *fewer* orders than usual. (Do not say *less orders* unless you wish to indicate their size rather than the number of them.)
2. There is *less* demand for cotton goods than there was a year ago.

GRAND, SPLENDID

Grand. 1. Of imposing character or aspect; magnificent in proportion, extent, or belongings — as, "*grand* scenery"; "a *grand* palace." 2. Characterized by striking excellence or impressive dignity; inspiring — as, "a *grand* idea"; "a *grand* oration." 3. Preëminent by reason of great ability or high character; noble; worthy of exalted respect — as, "the *grand* old man."

Splendid. 1. Giving out or reflecting brilliant light; brightly shining; glittering. 2. Magnificent; imposing; gorgeous — as, "a *splendid* pageant." 3. Inspiring the imagination or causing emotions of great admiration; illustrious; grand; glorious; heroic — as, "*splendid* achievement."

The foregoing definitions make clear the distinction in meaning between these words. You should not allow yourselves to fall into the habit of speaking of everything that pleases you as *grand* or *splendid*, though sometimes either is correct.

These words are correctly used in the following expressions

1. grand jury	1. splendid display
2. grand review of troops	2. splendid necklaces
3. grand cathedral	3. splendid pageant
4. grand opera	4. splendid parade
5. grand river	5. splendid sunset
6. grand old man	6. splendid costumes

7. grand result
8. grand bridge
9. grand fireworks
10. grand achievement

7. splendid coronation robes
8. splendid stone (diamond)
9. splendid achievement
10. splendid scenery

HARDLY, SCARCELY

Hardly. 1. In a hard or rough manner; rigorously; harshly; oppressively; severely; unfavorably — as, "to deal *hardly* with one." 2. With difficulty or great pains — as, "Seamen's wages are *hardly* earned." 3. Almost not; not, with few exceptions; not wholly; barely: noting that the qualified clause is untrue, but lacks little of being true — as, "He had *hardly* escaped when he was recaptured." 4. Not quite; not, though almost: a euphemism for *not*, noting that the qualified clause is untrue, though approaching very nearly to truth — as, "That is *hardly* the way to do it." 5. Improbably; not likely — as, "He will *hardly* take such a risk."

Scarcely. 1. Only just; with difficulty or with little lapse of time; barely: signifying that the qualified attribute or action is true, but lacks little of being untrue — as, "I had *scarcely* spoken." 2. Not quite; hardly: negativing the qualified word, but asserting that it lacks but little of truth — as, "You will *scarcely* maintain that proposition."

Scarcely is often improperly used for *hardly*. In strict usage *scarcely* has reference to quantity; *hardly*, to degree. You may rightly say, "It is *scarcely* an hour to nightfall" and "He will *hardly* finish his task before nightfall."

Do not say *scarcely — than* — as, "*Scarcely* had I recognized him *than* he addressed me." In such sentences, use *no sooner — than.*

HEALTHY, HEALTHFUL

Healthy. 1. Having health; being in a condition of health; sound; well — as, "a *healthy* body." 2. Conducing or tending to health, etc.

Healthful. Efficacious in promoting health or causing health; sanative; salubrious — as, "a *healthful* climate."

Healthy is most correctly used to signify possessing or enjoying health or its results — as, "a *healthy* person"; "a *healthy* condition." Healthful signifies promoting health, or tending, or adapted to confer, preserve, or promote health — as, "a *healthful* exercise."

MAD, ANGRY

Mad. 1. Disordered in mind; lunatic; insane; crazy. 2. Subject to overmastering emotion; excited intensely or beyond self-control; inflamed or infatuated, as with jealousy, terror, or grief. *Specif.* 1. Strongly moved by desire or curiosity; eager; infatuated — as, "*mad* for gold." 2. Wild with animal spirits; extravagantly gay. 3. Distracted with trouble or anxiety, as *mad* with grief; angry; furious; enraged. 4. Uncontrollable, as an animal through rage or disease, especially rabies. 5. Proceeding from or indicating a disordered mind; rash, as a *mad* project. 6. Tumultuous or uncontrollable in movement or action: said of things, as a *mad* torrent.

Angry. 1. Feeling anger; moved by violent resentment or indignation against the agent or cause of the trouble — as, "*angry* with his brother." 2. Showing or wearing the marks of anger; caused, occasioned, or affected by or as by anger — as, "an *angry* sky." 3. *Med.:* inflamed — as, "an *angry* sore." 4. Vexed, grieved, etc.

Mad in the sense of *angry* is colloquial. Do not say, "You make me *mad*" or "I am *mad* at you." In about nine cases out of ten the correct word is *angry*. You may very properly speak of a *mad* man, meaning an insane person, of a *mad* scheme, or of a *mad* dog.

NOWHERE, NOWHERES

Nowhere, somewhere, and **some place** are correct. Avoid *nowheres, somewheres,* and *someplace.* Do not say *nowhere near* for *not nearly.*

REAL, VERY

Real. 1. Having actual existence; not theoretical or imaginary — as, "That is a *real* instance of success." 2. Being in fact according to appearance or claim; genuine; not artificial, false, spurious

—as, "our Canada." 3. *Polite.* Having social tact; showing courtesy or consideration for others—as, "Be polite to your guests." 4. *Low.* Not standing up straight; not erect—as, "Don't sit so low in your chair." 5. *Low.* Bowing in or connected with being submissively obliging, servile, and contemptible—as, "a low, cringing fellow."

Very. 1. In a high degree; to a large measure, extremely, exceedingly—as, "very generous."

"I am very pleased" or "He is very promoted" is a common form of speech. However, some authorities recommend it is better to insert an adverb, as "I am very much pleased," "He is very greatly promoted."

Avoid the very common error of using the adjectives *real* for *very*. The Longman Information says no doubt about the distinction is necessary between the two. Do not say, "This book is *real* long," say "This book is *very* long." Most are several common expressions: "*real* kind," "*real* hungry," "*real* pretty," "*real* busy," and "*real* stupid." Very or really is correct in each case.

RESPECTFULLY, RESPECTIVELY

Respectfully. "In the order"

Respectively. "As apply or severally considered. Apply to the other component—as, "John, James, and William were elected president, secretary, and treasurer respectively."

In doubt a sense in which *respectively* is to be used, or especially careful not to use *respectively*.

SOME, SOMEWHAT

Some. 1. *Of indeterminate quantity.* Of indefinite number or amount—as, "He bought some land in Texas." 2. *Approximately.* Used to express an approximate number—as, "The report is in some measure true." 3. *Considerable or thought of.* Used colloquially to express emphasis or uncertainty in regard to the person or thing referred to—as, "Some person threw past" or "He was hit and some hard." 4. *Large.* Used as an adjective. 5. *Colloq.* Of considerable account, noteworthy, or eminent.

As an adverb the word *some* has the following meanings: 1. *Colloq.*

In an approximate degree; as nearly as may be estimated; about — as, "*Some* eighty people were present." 2. *Dial.* or *Prov.* Somewhat — as, "He was *some* tired" or "I like it some."

Somewhat. Adv. In some degree; to some extent — as, "*somewhat* hastily," "*somewhat* more than a year ago."

Remember, therefore, that *some* should not be used in the sense of *somewhat*. Do not say, "Business is *some* better this year." Remember the caution on page 62 never to use words in a sense shown by the dictionary to be colloquial.

NICE, AGRÉEABLE

Nice. 1. Characterized by discrimination and judgment; discerning — as, "a *nice* criticism." 2. Refined and pure in tastes and habits; refined; hence overparticular; dainty; modest; fastidious; etc.

From the above definition it is clear that *nice* in the sense of agreeable or attractive is colloquial. All such expressions as "*nice* time," "*nice* man," "*nice* business," etc. are incorrect.

APT, LIKELY, LIABLE

Apt. 1. Having a natural or habitual tendency (to); liable, likely, or given (to) — as, "Iron is *apt* to rust." 2. Adapted by nature; naturally gifted; fitted; able — as, "*apt* to rule." 3. Adapted to the purpose — as, "an *apt* illustration."

Likely. 1. Apparently true or real; easily credible; plausible; probable — as, "a *likely* explanation." 2. Reasonably expected; showing a tendency; etc.

Liable. 1. Exposed, as to damage, penalty, expense, burden, or anything unpleasant or dangerous; open; contingently subject; with *to* — as, "*liable* to insult or injury." 2. Justly or legally responsible; answerable — as, "The endorser is *liable*." 3. Having a tendency, inclination, or likelihood (to do something unfortunate or undesirable); likely (with unfavorable sense) — as, "All men are *liable* to err."

There are some places in which these words are exact synonyms

and one may, therefore, be used for the other. For example, you will note that *likely* is given as one of the meanings of *liable* and that both *likely* and *liable* are given as synonyms of *apt*.

Words that have the same meaning in some cases, however, have different meanings in others, and the selection of the correct word where the meanings are different is important.

If you eliminate the first definition of *apt*, because this meaning of the word is the same as one of the meanings of the words *liable* and *likely*, you get its *distinctive* meanings, *naturally gifted* and *adapted to a purpose*. Neither *liable* nor *likely* has these meanings.

Similarly in the first two definitions of *liable* you get its distinctive meanings, *exposed to danger* and *legally responsible*. Neither *apt* nor *likely* has these meanings.

The distinctive meaning of *likely* is the first one given — plausible. Neither *apt* nor *liable* has this meaning.

So much for the distinctive meanings — that is, the place where one cannot be substituted for the other. But even where the meanings are similar there is a slight difference. *Apt* refers to a natural tendency; *liable* in the sense of likelihood, refers to something unfavorable; and *likely* refers to something expected merely. Thus you say "Iron is *apt* to rust" when you have in mind its natural chemical qualities; you say "Men are *liable* to err" when you have in mind an undesirable possibility; and you say "That man is *likely* to do wrong" when you have in mind a real probability. None of the three words would be wrong in the sentences just given, but the slight shade of difference in them is worth noting.

The following is a list of similar words to be studied with the help of the dictionary or a good book of synonyms:

adequate, enough, sufficient
apparent, seeming
credible, creditable
delicious, delightful
desirous, anxious
disinterested, uninterested
due, owing
exceptionable, exceptional
funny, odd, peculiar
human, humane

ingenious, ingenuous
mutual, common
new, novel, modern
noted, notorious
partly, partially
pitiable, piteous, pitiful
plenty, plenteous, plentiful
practicable, practical
sincere, frank
sure, certain
surprised, astonished, astounded
valuable, valued

LESSON TWENTY–ONE

How to Use Prepositions Correctly

As prepositions have different shades of meaning, they should be selected with care. The following suggestions should help you to use them correctly:

1. Ordinarily such prepositions as *in*, *on*, *at*, and *by* denote rest; such prepositions as *to*, *into*, *unto*, *toward*, *from*, and a few others, denote motion.

   1. The telegram is lying *on* the table.
   2. The messenger walked *to* the station.

2. *In* denotes position or presence within; *into*, entrance.

   1. All employees of the Crossett Lumber Company live *in* the village.
   2. A stranger came *into* the office to inquire for work.

3. *Between* should be used with reference to two persons or things; *among*, with reference to three or more.

   1. The unsuccessful man divided his time *between* gambling and speculation.
   2. The company distributed the money as a bonus *among* its employees.

4. *Beside* means by the side of; *besides*, in addition to.

   1. The plaintiff sat *beside* his attorney.
   2. *Besides* ambition, the salesman should have patience.

5. *In* should be used when reference is made to the interior of any place. It is used before the names of countries or districts and of large cities. *At* should be used generally in speaking of a place regarded as a mere local point, such as a village.[1]

[1] Webster: *New International Dictionary.*

1. The president of the company arrived *in New York* on Friday.
2. Our agent stopped *at Lake Village*, a small town in Arkansas.

6. *On* and *upon* should be considered as absolute synonyms, but *upon* is more emphatic. *Upon* is also the proper word to use with *depend* — as, "Your ability in any line will *depend upon* dozens of important character qualities."

Some crude errors in the use of prepositions are due almost wholly to carelessness. These consist chiefly of the omission of a necessary preposition or the addition of an unnecessary one. Do not omit a preposition whenever it is necessary to the grammatical completeness of the statement or adds clearness or emphasis. For example, it is incorrect to say, "*Any size* envelope will be satisfactory." Say, "An envelope *of any size* will be satisfactory." It is also very poor usage to say, "It is *no use*," "It is *no avail*," "It is *no consequence*," etc. Note the gain in effectiveness when stated thus: "It is *of no use*," "It is *of no avail*," "It is *of no consequence*," etc. Do not say, "Where is the telegram *at?*" or "Why did you do it *for?*" In both cases omit the preposition.

Another incorrect expression, limited almost wholly to oral speech, is *off of* — as, "The copy of the contract fell *off of* the table." Here the word *of* should be omitted. Also in such sentences as "I do not *remember of* his mailing the letter," the word *of* is not permissible. It is correct to say, "I do not remember his mailing the letter."

The use of the word *of* to take the place of *have* in such expressions as *could of, would of, should of, might of, may*

of, *had of*, and *must of* is inexcusably bad. The correct expressions are, of course, *could have*, *would have*, *should have*, *might have*, *may have*, *had*, and *must have*.

WORDS FOLLOWED BY SPECIAL PREPOSITIONS

The preposition to be used after a word sometimes depends upon the sense in which the word is used. For example:

Accommodate with a desirable or needed thing.
My banker *accommodated* me *with* a loan.

Accommodate to, to adapt.
They *accommodated* themselves *to* their surroundings.

Accused of crime or offense.
The treasurer has been *accused of* embezzlement.

Accused by a person.
The young man was *accused by* his employer.

Adapted for something by nature.
The rich delta land was *adapted for* cotton.

Adapt from an author.
The paragraph was *adapted from* Read's "Salesmanship."

Adapt to a thing.
Our customers became *adapted to* the new high-price level.

Agree to a plan, a proposal, or an opinion.
Edison sometimes *agreed to* the plans of his friends.

Agree with a person.
Mr. Perkins *agreed with* me that an investment in oil is unsafe.

Agree upon a decision.
The officers of the company *agreed upon* an advertising campaign.

Angry at a thing.
The customer became *angry at* my sarcastic remarks.

Angry with a person.
You cannot afford to become *angry with* a customer.

Attend to business.
The manager of a small concern frequently *attends to* all the business of his office.

Attend upon a person.
The gentleman's secretary *attended upon* him throughout his visit to South America.

Attended by a person.
The capitalist was *attended by* his faithful servant.

Attended with consequences.
The rainy season was *attended with* heavy losses to cotton.

Beset by evils.
Before banks became numerous many business men were *beset by* highwaymen.

Beset with arguments.
The crafty salesman *beset* his customer *with* many arguments.

Communicate to a person, to give information to.
Through extensive advertising we have *communicated to* the public the facts about the merits of our goods.

Communicate with a person, to speak or write to.
Should you need additional cars, *communicate with* any one of our salesmen.

Compare to unlike things.
The personality of a salesman may be *compared to* magnetism.

Compare with like things or similar qualities.
Our rubber goods *compare* favorably *with* those of any other company.

Consist in, to have the substance, foundation, or character.
Tact in salesmanship *consists in* the ability to do the right thing at the right time.

Consist of, to be made of or composed of.
Our stock of goods *consists of* drugs and stationery.

Confide in, to trust in.
The people would gladly *confide in* men like Mr. Straus.

Confide to, to trust to.
The manager *confided to* his stenographer several important papers.

Die of disease (not from disease).
In 1918–19 so many people *died of* influenza that the Iowa Bankers' Life Company suspended payment of dividends.

Differ from a person or thing in likeness.
Our new Steel Filing equipment *differs* greatly *from* the wooden one we have been using.

Differ with, in opinion.
None of our competitors has dared to *differ with* us concerning the merits of the Chalmers Sedan.

Different from (not *different than* or *to*).
Your work in the office is *different from* mine. Do not say "Your work in the office is *different than* mine."

Part from a person.
It was hard to *part from* my old partner, Mr. Brown.

Part with a thing.
A salesman must make his article of merchandise so attractive that the customer will be ready to *part with* his money.

Remonstrate against a thing.
The managers of the large department stores *remonstrated against* the closing order issued by the Board of Health.

Remonstrate with a person.
The foreman stopped to *remonstrate with* some striking workmen.

Taste for literature, music, art, etc.

Working people should endeavor to cultivate a *taste for* good literature.

Taste of food.

The *taste of* pie was unknown to the employees at the lumber camps.

Omit *of* when *taste* is used as a verb — as, "*Taste* the pie."

LESSON TWENTY-TWO

How to Use Conjunctions Correctly

The most common conjunctions are — *and*, *but*, *for*, *or*, *nor*, and *neither*. *And* should be used only to connect words, phrases, or clauses that express equal or similar ideas; *but*, to connect those that express dissimilar or opposite ones. *And* cannot, therefore, be used where *but* is needed. For example, it is incorrect to say, "It rained *and* I reached the office at the usual time." Say, "It rained, *but* I reached the office at the usual time." *And* is incorrectly used in such expressions as "Try *and* see me." Say "Try *to* see me."

The use of too many *and's* is a fault that renders written work unbearably dull. If you find that you have fallen into the " and " habit, cure it by learning to use the following substitutes: *also*, *besides*, *again*, *furthermore*, *likewise*, *moreover*, *too*, *presently*, *in addition to*.

Conjunctions are sometimes used in pairs.[1] The principal ones so used appear in the following list:

as — as	not only — but also
both — and	so — as
either — or	though — yet
neither — nor	whether — or

When using conjunctions in pairs, remember that *either* should be followed by *or* and *neither* by *nor*. It is a common mistake to follow *neither* by *or*. For example, you often hear such sentences as "*Neither* Mr. Mills *or* I secured the position," instead of "*Neither* Mr. Mills *nor* I secured the position."

[1] Conjunctions used in pairs are called *correlatives*.

Remember that *so — as* should be used when inequality is expressed. Inequality is generally expressed by the help of a negative — as, "Railroad stocks were *not so* firm today *as* usual."

When using conjunctions in pairs, remember that they should be placed as near as possible to the parts of the sentence which they connect. Note that this is true of the conjunctions in the following illustrations:

1. The salesman should *either* train himself *or* seek special training elsewhere.
2. This separator *not only* skims closer *but also* lasts longer than any other kind.
3. *Not only* must you know all about your goods, *but also* all that is to be learned about your competitor's goods.

Your attention has been called to the fact that *like* should not be used for *as if*, *as though*, or *as* to introduce a clause. For example, you should avoid such sentences as the following: "It looks *like* the price of lumber would rise much higher."

In the following sentences *as*, *as if*, and *as though* are used correctly. *Like* would be incorrect.

1. It looks *as if* the August sales will be large.
2. The manager speaks *as though* he were angry.
3. Alice filed the letters precisely *as* she was instructed.

Like is a preposition. In the following sentences it is correctly used:

1. The success of our advertising campaign seems *like* a dream.
2. *Like* all other kinds of electrical work, armature winding is extremely interesting.
3. *Like* him, every clerk had his particular work to do.

Unless should be used rather than *without* or *except* to introduce a clause. *Without* and *except* are prepositions.

Do not say, "*Without* he shows more interest, he will not be promoted," but, "*Unless* he shows more interest, he will not be promoted."

It is also incorrect to use *except* in such sentences as "The abstract shows a good title to the land, *except* there is one lien unsatisfied." Say, "*Except* that there is one lien unsatisfied."

The correct use of *without* and *except* is shown in these sentences:

1. Miss Morton cannot secure the position *without* a recommendation.
2. Your car is the most expensive on the market *except* one.
3. *Without* the use of the Addressograph, the work of the office would be done more slowly.

In the following sentences *unless* is used correctly:

1. *Unless* you return the chair promptly, we cannot refund your money.
2. We shall be compelled to cancel our order of May 4, *unless* the goods arrive tomorrow.
3. *Unless* present indications prove unreliable, there will be a shortage of silk goods for the fall trade.

Study the following incorrect and correct expressions:

The expressions in this column are incorrect:	*The expressions in this column are correct:*
1. I do not deny *but what* government bonds are safe enough.	1. I do not deny *that* government bonds are safe enough.

The expressions in this column are incorrect:	*The expressions in this column are correct:*
2. I do not doubt *but that* this article was manufactured by your Company.	2. I do not doubt *that* this article was manufactured by your company.
3. You may return the goods *providing* they are defective.	3. You may return the goods *provided* they are defective.
4. During August we shall *try and* increase our sales.	4. During August we shall *try to* increase our sales.
5. See *if* the order has been correctly filled.	5. See *whether* the order has been correctly filled.
6. I do not see *as* the goods are really damaged.	6. I do not see *that* the goods are really damaged.
7. Henry said *how* he would deliver every package before night.	7. Henry said *that* he would deliver every package before night.
8. *As long as* you have always met your obligations promptly, we will extend your credit sixty days.	8. *Since* you have always met your obligations promptly, we will extend your credit sixty days.
9. I do not know *as* the quality of these goods is superior to our own.	9. I do not know *that* the quality of these goods is superior to our own.
10. Under these circumstances, therefore, we *cannot but* refuse to replace the table.	10. Under these circumstances, therefore, we *can but* refuse to replace the table.

LESSON TWENTY-THREE

Sentence Structure: The Simple Sentence

There are many kinds of subjects. Note the seven kinds of subjects in the following:

1. *The price* has advanced. (A noun)
2. *They* wear well. (A pronoun)
3. *The ambitious* succeed. (An adjective)
4. *To write* was his delight. (An infinitive)
5. *To answer letters* was his duty. (An infinitive phrase)
6. *Answering letters* was his duty. (A gerund)
7. *That the price of sugar has risen* cannot be denied. (A clause)

The simple subject may be much enlarged by the addition of modifiers. For example, we may expand the first of the foregoing sentences — thus: "*The price of all the shoes that the company manufactures has advanced.*" The simple subject (price), together with all its modifiers, is called the *complete subject.*

Similarly, the *complete predicate* is the simple predicate, or predicate verb, with all its modifiers. Note the complete predicate in each of the following sentences:

1. A night letter *will be delivered on the morning of the next business day.*
2. Business men *sometimes use code language in night letters.*
3. The Standard Dictionary *is used by many business houses.*

The subject usually stands first in the sentence, but may come after the verb — as, "Immediately came *an insistent demand for higher wages.*" This kind of sentence can at times be used effectively to secure variety.

Many statements in speaking and writing begin with

There is or *There are*. You often use the one when the other is needed. In such cases, *there* causes the trouble. The word *there* is not the subject of the sentence at all; it merely introduces it and makes it possible for the subject to stand after the verb.

In the following sentences the subject follows the verb. Observe that when the subject is singular we should use *is*, *was*, or *has* and when plural, *are*, *were*, or *have*.

1. *There is* a *telegram* from the National Cash Register Company on your desk.
2. *There are* many *kinds* of office directories and reference books.
3. *There was* no *explanation* of the delay in your letter of August 4.
4. *There were* several form *letters* lying on the manager's desk.
5. *There have* been placed on the market *machines* for sealing and stamping mail at the same time.

If we rearrange these sentences so that the subject stands first, the difficulty disappears — thus:

1. A *telegram* from the National Cash Register Company *is* on your desk.
2. Many *kinds* of office directories and reference books *are* in existence.
3. No *explanation* of the delay *was* in your letter of August 4.
4. Several form *letters were* lying on the manager's desk.
5. *Machines* for sealing and stamping mail at the same time *have* been placed on the market.

Through carelessness many fall into the habit of saying *they is* or *they are*, *they has* or *they have*, *they was* or *they were*, instead of *there is* or *there are*, *there was* or *there were*, *there has* or *there have*. This is a very crude error, but one that can be easily corrected if you pronounce

distinctly the word *there* each time. Do not say, for example, "*They have* been fewer orders this month than last."

In the following sentences expressions beginning with *there* are used correctly. Read them carefully several times, and try to form the habit of using these words rightly:

1. *There is* no *reply* to your telegram.
2. In the mail yesterday *there was* an *order* for hammers.
3. *There are* many interesting trade *journals*.
4. In Mr. Clower's office *there were* several *machines* for taking care of the correspondence.
5. Recently *there has been* an unusual *demand* for Goodrich tires.
6. During the past year *there have been* many *changes* in the money market.
7. *There is* no *doubt* that municipal bonds are desirable.
8. *There are* few *organizations*, if any, doing so much for the city as the Chamber of Commerce.
9. Among the working people *there has* developed a *spirit* of coöperation.
10. In the industrial world *there have* risen a *number* of situations entirely new.
11. *There is* much *news* concerning the business world in *System*.
12. During the past year *there have* come many *changes* in rates of interest.
13. *There are* only a few basic *rules* in good salesmanship.
14. *There have been* some *instances* in which the law of supply and demand has been set aside.

Sometimes the word *it* is used to introduce a sentence, the real subject standing after the verb — thus:

1. It is the policy of this house *to give the best service possible to its customers.*
2. It has been decided *to replace all furniture broken in transit.*

3. It is important *to find out certain facts regarding your customer's tastes and character.*
4. It has been scientifically demonstrated *that a deficiency of speech can be cured through practice.*

The subject or predicate of a sentence may be compound. In the following sentences the subject is compound:

1. *The price and quality* of the goods should be clearly stated.
2. *Either Frank or Rufus* is ready to make copies of the letter.

In these the predicate is compound:

1. You *may take the suit back and refund the money.*
2. We *will supply all the labor and furnish all the material according to specifications for $1000.*

The sentence should be carefully distinguished from expressions that merely assume. To *assume* means *to take for granted* — as, *the working people, the man writing at the desk, the letter being short and poorly written.* Some of these expressions are long and somewhat involved and bear a close resemblance to a sentence. Remember that a sentence must have both a subject and predicate and express a complete thought. Note that these expressions are not sentences:

1. Then after we had packed the goods.
2. In the factory located near the river.
3. The bookkeepers working patiently on their books.

LESSON TWENTY–FOUR

Sentence Structure: The Complex Sentence

In the sentence, "The bank book is sometimes the only receipt which the depositor has for his money," there are two clauses. The first of these is "The bank book is the only receipt," and the second "which the depositor has for his money." It is clear that the second clause depends upon the first for its meaning. It is therefore called a dependent or *subordinate clause*, and the clause upon which it depends is called the *principal* clause. The sentence is said to be complex. The subordinate clause in this sentence tells us something about the noun *receipt*, that is, modifies it. It is, therefore, used like an adjective. Subordinate clauses are named according to their use in the sentence. We have three kinds — *adjectival*, *adverbial*, and *noun clauses*.

An *adjectival clause* is a clause that is used as an adjective. Such clauses are generally introduced by the relative pronouns *who*, *which*, and *that* or some of their inflected forms. Occasionally adjectival clauses begin with the word *where*, *when*, or *why*. When introduced by relative pronouns, they are commonly called *relative clauses*. The following sentences contain adjectival clauses:

1. The clerk *who knows how to handle the mail of the average business house* should easily find employment.
2. Letters *that have not been edited by the stenographer* should not be submitted for signature.
3. The man *by whom the note was signed* could not be found.
4. The file clerk *whose duty it was to care for the letter* mislaid it.

5. The time *when the note is due* should always be kept in mind.
6. I know the reason *why a discount is allowed to customers.*

An *adverbial clause* is a clause that is used as an adverb — as, "*When a person writes his name across the back of a note,* he indorses it." Here the clause "When a person writes his name across the back of a note" modifies *indorses.* Adverbial clauses are introduced by such conjunctions as *when, where, while, if, as, as if, than, because, since, before, though, although,* and *unless.* The following sentences contain adverbial clauses:

1. *If the office mail is stamped by hand,* the stamps are usually bought in sheets of one hundred.
2. *As business men must occasionally refer to previous correspondence,* all letters should be carefully filed.
3. *Although a nominal partner in a business invests no capital,* he is responsible for the obligations of the firm.
4. Insurance is not wholly a development of modern times, *for it was known to the ancients.*
5. Nothing else in life can be so important to a man *as the work in which he engages* (is).
6. Let the competitor's goods be secondary *if they are mentioned at all.*

A *noun clause* is a clause that is used as a noun — as, "*That salesmanship can be taught successfully* cannot be denied." We have here as the subject a group of words playing the part usually played by a noun or pronoun. The clause is, therefore, a noun clause.

Noun clauses are generally introduced by the word *that* — as, "I did not know *that government bonds were free from taxation.*" However, *that* is frequently omitted. In fact

it can be left out of the foregoing sentence without affecting the thought in any way.

Noun clauses may also be introduced by the relative pronouns *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*, and by the conjunctions *when*, *where*, *why*, *whether*, and *how*.

The following sentences contain noun clauses as ordinarily used:

1. *That prices rise during war times* is evident.
2. Your objection to the suit is *that it is not made of wool.*
3. I know *that a man can study his goods and increase his knowledge of them.*
4. We wish to say *that we are most certainly interested in considering all new mechanical devices.*
5. Please tell us *when the goods should be shipped.*
6. We are unable to tell *whether we shall be interested in your gasoline-feed system.*
7. We did not know *who manufactured the shoes.*
8. The salesman asked *which we preferred.*
9. The manager's reply was, "*That is the best we can do.*"
10. *How prices were controlled* has not been learned.
11. I inquired *when he would ship the goods.*
12. The public soon learns *where the best service is given.*
13. It is not difficult to explain *why he failed in business.*
14. No one could tell *how long the supply of cotton would last.*

LESSON TWENTY-FIVE

Sentence Structure: The Compound Sentence

A sentence is said to be *compound* if it consists of two or more independent statements closely related in thought — as, "The money lent is called the principal, and the sum paid for the use of it is called the interest." Here we have two statements, or members, united, each of which might stand alone. They are clearly related in thought and belong together.

There are *five* connectives commonly used to connect independent statements.[1] They are:

and	nor
but	neither
or	

Sometimes, however, the connective is omitted, especially when the relation in thought between the members is close — as, "Many of our own bills are past due; we cannot wait longer for your remittance."

It is important to be able to distinguish a simple sentence with a compound subject or predicate from a compound sentence. For example, the following statement looks very much like a compound sentence: "He looked hurriedly through the letter and presently laid it on the table." If you examine it carefully, you will find that there is but one subject and a compound predicate. It is therefore

[1] Commonly called coördinate conjunctions because they connect equal members.

a simple sentence. Reduced to its simplest form it appears thus: "He looked and laid." *And* merely connects two verbs.

In deciding whether a sentence is simple or compound, the question is, what does the conjunction connect? Are there really two or more independent statements? If so, the sentence is compound.

Sometimes a simple sentence has both subject and predicate compound. Then, indeed, it does look like a compound sentence. For example, the following statement resembles a compound sentence very closely: "The manager and his secretary talked together for several minutes and finally arrived at a decision." Reduced to its simplest form, this statement reads: "Manager and secretary talked and arrived." There is evidently but a single statement here. The sentence is therefore a simple sentence.

Any of the members of a compound sentence may contain a subordinate clause — as, "We are much interested in your gasoline-feed system, but *it would not be worth considering unless the idea were properly protected by patents.*" In the foregoing illustration the second member contains a subordinate clause; namely, "unless the idea were properly protected by patents." If the second member were detached from the first, then it would be merely a complex sentence. As it stands it is a compound sentence, the second member of which is complex. It is called a compound-complex sentence. If the first member were complex and the second member compound, the sentence would be a complex-compound sentence.

Compound sentences may be formed by uniting

1. Statements that are similar in meaning or a continuation of the same line of thought — as, "The salesman's voice should be clear, and his language ought to be free from errors." Do not unite independent members that are evidently incongruous in meaning. For example, it is incorrect to say, "Mr. Price has invested large sums of money in oil stock, and his wife is a loyal Presbyterian." When incongruous ideas — those that have no relation to each other and do not belong together — present themselves, subordinate one of them or separate them into two sentences.
2. Statements expressing thoughts that are in contrast — as, "The price of these leather belts has been greatly reduced, although the quality of material in them is superior."
3. Statements expressing thoughts between which one must choose — as, "Some remittance, however small, must be received before the last day of the month, or your account will be placed in the hands of our attorney for collection."
4. Statements expressing inference or consequence. A great variety of connectives may be used in such sentences, among which are the following: *so*, *so that*, *hence*, *therefore*, *consequently*, *accordingly*, *wherefore*, and *whereas*.[1] These sentences illustrate this kind of compound sentence:
   1. Everyone could understand and appreciate our plan of selling stock on monthly payments; so it became popular in a very short time.
   2. Into every Goodrich tire goes the very best material; therefore, the product outlives the guarantee of the manufacturer.

[1] Campbell and Vass: *Essentials of English*, page 52.

LESSON TWENTY-SIX

Punctuation

THE PERIOD

Rule I. *A period should be placed at the end of every sentence that states a fact or expresses a command.*

Simple as the rule is, it is often disregarded. This is sometimes due to carelessness, but generally to an inability to see at once just where the thought is completed and the sentence ends. Notice the errors in the following examples chosen from business letters:

1. We have received your check of $150. Also your letter in regard to the ten-dollar balance which still remains open on our books.
2. We do not feel that you have given the matter due consideration. The open items on your account, as you will note from the enclosed statement, having run considerably past the date of maturity.
3. We intend no discourtesy by the return of your affidavit dated January 24, certifying a shortage of merchandise. This in its present form not being effective in collecting a claim.
4. The two invoices total $171.86; we allowed $25 in addition to your check.

In the first three of these examples, incomplete thoughts are treated as if they were sentences. Such errors generally arise in mistaking a long phrase or clause for a statement. Participial phrases, particularly those containing *being* or *having*, are especially troublesome.

If you take the foregoing errors separately, you will see at once that they are not sentences:

1. Also your letter in regard to the ten-dollar balance which still remains open on our books.
2. The open items on your account, as you will note from the enclosed statement, having run considerably past the date of maturity.
3. This in its present form not being effective in collecting a claim.

The fourth example illustrates the common fault of running together several sentences. This particular expression should be pointed as follows: "The two invoices total $171.86. We allowed $25 in addition to your check."

RULE II. *A period should be used after an abbreviation.* Note the following illustrations: *C.O.D.*, *f.o.b.*, *recd.*, *doz.*, *pkg.*, *p.*, etc. The rule applies also to initials — as, *A. M. Hyde.* A period should not, however, be placed after a contraction or *1st*, *2d*, *3d*, *4th*, etc.

A few abbreviations, such as *per cent* and *ad*, no longer require the period.

In references to public land divisions, the following punctuation is approved: the *NW* ¼ *SE* ¼ *sec.* 35, *T.* 16 *N.*, *R.* 2 *W.*[1]

THE QUESTION MARK

RULE III. *A question mark should be used at the close of every direct question.*

1. "How much can you pay?" Mr. Day inquired.
2. Mr. Day inquired how much I could pay.

Note that in the second illustration the question is not

[1] This describes the northwest quarter of the southeast quarter of section 35 of township 16 north in range 2 west.

stated directly and is therefore not followed by a question mark.

THE EXCLAMATION POINT

RULE IV. *An exclamation point should be used after interjections,*[1] *phrases, clauses, or sentences that express strong feeling.*

THE COMMA

RULE V. *The comma should be used to mark the omission of words or word groups.*

In a series of words, phrases, or clauses — that is, where there are more than two — the comma should be inserted after each member of the group except the last. It is important to remember, however, that the terms so separated must be used alike in the sentence. That is, a series of nouns used as the subject of a verb, a series of verbs used with the same subject, or several modifiers — adjectives, adverbs, phrases, or clauses — belonging to the same word, require the comma. Note the following illustrations:

1. Stamps, currency, checks, and money orders were found in the different letters. (A series of nouns)
2. A new table has been selected from our stock, carefully crated, and shipped to you by fast freight. (A series of verbs)
3. Our representative has had much experience in our advertising department, in the office, on the road, and even in foreign cities. (A series of phrases)
4. We claim that you can easily equip your store with our new model National Cash Register, that you can thereby render better service to your customers, and that you can save more money. (A series of clauses.)

[1] Interjection: A word or form of speech thrown in to express emotion or feeling — as, *O! alas!* etc.

Many good writers, however, omit the comma between the last two members of a series when they are connected by *and*, *or*, or *but*. The first of the foregoing sentences would then be written thus: "Stamps, currency, checks and money orders were found in the different letters."

In such expressions as "attractive plain net curtains," no comma should be used because each word modifies all that follows. In the following sentence, however, the case is different: "A mimeograph will produce *sharp*, *clean-cut*, and *accurate* copies of typewritten papers."

The rule applies also to cases in which a verb is omitted to avoid tiresome repetition.

1. Call loans are payable on demand; time loans, at the end of a given period of time.
2. The first case of merchandise was shipped October 4; the second, one month later.

It must not be presumed that all omissions require a comma. There are many "short-cuts" which are so well known as not to need any mark. In cases where the comma would neither aid the eye nor make the meaning clearer — where, in other words, there would be nothing gained — do not use it. For example, no comma need be used to show the omission of *that* in the sentence "The manufacturer knew he would make a profit on his goods."

LESSON TWENTY-SEVEN

PUNCTUATION (*Continued*)

THE COMMA (*Continued*)

RULE VI. *A comma should be used to separate the members of a compound sentence when they are closely related in thought even though they are connected by* ***and, but, or, nor,*** OR ***neither.***

1. The material of the car should be light but strong, *and* the springs should have ample play.
2. In some states the landlord must keep the premises in repair, *but* in others the law makes no such provision.
3. The goods may have been lost, *or* some other accident may have occurred.
4. A salesman should not neglect his personal appearance, *nor* should he become careless in speech.
5. Our dealers have not solicited orders during the month, *neither* have they advertised our cars in the daily papers.

The related assertions may be made to stand alone. It is a question of the amount of expression-force you wish to obtain. If you wish to emphasize each thought, let each statement stand alone and put a period after it. There is therefore considerable freedom of choice. Note that the foregoing examples may be written thus:

1. The material of the car should be light but strong. The springs should have ample play.
2. In some states the landlord must keep the premises in repair. In others the law makes no such provision.
3. The goods may have been lost. Some other accident may have happened.

4. A salesman should not neglect his personal appearance. He should not become careless in speech.
5. Our dealers have not solicited orders during the month. They have not advertised our cars in the daily papers.

A comma should not be used to separate the members of a compound predicate unless they are long and somewhat involved. It was for this reason that you were asked to distinguish carefully between a simple sentence whose predicate is compound and a compound sentence. For example, no comma is needed before the connective in the following sentence, because only the predicate is compound.

A number of our dealers have used our sales letters and obtained satisfactory results.

Should you use a different subject with the second verb, making two statements, you must use the comma — thus:

A number of our dealers have used our sales letters, and some of them have obtained very satisfactory results.

RULE VII. *A comma should be used to set off a subordinate clause standing first in the sentence.*

1. *When we furnished you the routing information,* we closed our file on the tracer.
2. *If he is unable to show delivery to your satisfaction,* he can take up the matter with his agent at Peoria for the passing record at that point.

One exception should perhaps be mentioned. A clause that is used as a subject should not be set off, as it is almost always incorrect to separate a subject from its verb, unless, of course, it is very long and intricate. For example, it would be incorrect to insert a comma after *signed*

in the following sentence: "*That the contract will be signed* is certain."

RULE VIII. *Introductory participial phrases and infinitive phrases used independently should be set off by a comma.*

1. *Having shipped the goods by fast freight,* we feel sure they will reach you by September 4.
2. *Having made no complaint when the merchandise was received,* you cannot expect us to accept return of the goods now.
3. *On referring to our records,* we find that your order left our shipping department April 4.
4. *To tell the truth,* we did not expect a reply to our letter.

Seldom is it necessary to set off other phrases standing first in the sentence. For example, it is not necessary to separate the phrases in the following sentences:

1. *In this way* an error could easily be made in packing the goods.
2. *At your early convenience* will you make out another requisition for three pieces of beaverboard?

If, however, the phrase is long and complex, it should be set off — thus:

1. *For the corresponding six months in* 1920, we lost $100,000.
2. *After a conversation with a friend or business acquaintance,* retire to your office or room and think over all that was said.

An introductory adverb or one that is used independently may or may not be set off by a comma — thus:

1. *Now,* I want to take your order strictly on the merits of the goods.
2. *Then,* why should we refund your money?
3. *Now* this is the way I look at it.

RULE IX. *Modifying clauses should be set off by commas only when they present an additional thought.*

The following sentences are types of this kind:

1. Mr. Davis, *who is our representative in that part of the state,* will call on you in a few days.
2. You have taken more orders than any other salesman, *which is all the house can ask.*
3. Our buyer reached Paris early in June, *where he decided to remain for a week or two.*
4. The farm was practically sold, *when suddenly a defect was found in the title.*

In order to show that the modifying clauses present additional ideas, the foregoing sentences may be written as follows:

1. Mr. Davis will call on you in a few days. He is our representative in that part of the state.
2. You have taken more orders than any other salesman. This is all the house can ask.
3. Our buyer reached Paris early in June. He decided to remain there for a week or two.
4. The farm was practically sold. Suddenly a defect was found in the title.

You will find it necessary to distinguish carefully between a clause that presents an additional thought and one that limits or closely defines the word it modifies.[1] Observe that in the following sentences no comma is needed to set off the limiting clauses:

[1] A clause that limits or closely defines the word it modifies is commonly called a *restrictive clause;* one that presents an additional thought, a *non-restrictive clause.*

1. The mailing clerk *who is familiar with the regulations covering domestic and foreign mail* will succeed.
2. Bring me the telegram *that lies on Mr. Heuson's desk.*
3. Our store is the one place *where quality is supreme.*
4. I will notify you *when Mr. Morgan deposits the warranty deed.*

In the first sentence the clause *who is familiar with the regulations covering domestic and foreign mail* limits the word *clerk.* Not every mailing clerk will succeed, but only the one who is familiar with the regulations covering domestic and foreign mail. The clause could not be dropped without leaving the meaning changed or incomplete. The same line of reasoning applies to the remaining examples.

LESSON TWENTY–EIGHT

PUNCTUATION (*Continued*)

THE COMMA (*Continued*)

RULE X. *Words of address, together with their accompanying modifiers, should be set off by commas.*

1. We feel certain, *Mr. Clay*, that you will be pleased with our new American Radiators.
2. Yes, *sir*, I am more than pleased with them.

RULE XI. *A word or phrase in apposition should be set off by commas.*[1]

1. Our New Model 10, *the best typewriter made*, has been received by the public with great enthusiasm.
2. H. E. Girard, *treasurer*.

RULE XII. *Parenthetical words, phrases, or clauses should be set off by commas.*[2]

1. If, *however*, this account is correct, will you please remit at once?
2. This article, *for example*, cannot be bought for less at wholesale.
3. The goods, *I am sure*, were lost in transit.
4. The firm had decided, *he said*, to refuse the return of goods shipped according to contract.

The words *however, nevertheless, indeed, therefore, namely, no doubt, of course, perhaps, in truth, for example*, and such

[1] A word or phrase attached to a noun or pronoun to explain it, is said to be in apposition.

[2] Parenthetical words, phrases, and clauses are expressions which might be omitted without destroying the main idea of the sentence. They are thrown-in expressions.

expressions are often used parenthetically. Sometimes *however* modifies a single word, and in this case should not be set off — as, "*However* anxious he may have been to sell his goods, he did not misrepresent a single article." In this case *however* is not a parenthetical word but an adverb.

RULE XIII. *So-called intermediate expressions — those that come between such closely related parts as subject and predicate or the verb and its object — should be set off by commas.*

1. This plan, *with your hearty coöperation*, should enable us to sell many new cars.
2. You may, *if you like*, use my name for reference.
3. After a reasonable time, *every effort having been made by letter to induce payment*, the account should be placed in the hands of an attorney for collection.[1]

Remember, however, that phrases which limit closely should not be set off — as, "The desk *by the window* is very expensive." It is a mistake to assume that all participial phrases should be set off. For example, in the sentence "The goods *kept on display* were sold at a reduction," the purpose of the phrase is not to present an additional fact, but to tell us just what goods were sold at a reduction. Therefore no comma should be used.

[1] A noun and a participle with their modifiers are sometimes used independently to make up what is called the *absolute phrase*. Whether used at the beginning of the sentence or within it, the phrase should be set off by commas. In the sentence "On the following day, *Smith being absent*, Brown did the work," the absolute phrase is in italics.

RULE XIV. *Occasionally a comma is needed to make the meaning clearer or to avoid ambiguity.*

1. We have just received a letter containing enclosure, and a telegram.
2. Our new foreman is tall, and heavily built.
3. To sell the same article always, prevents the salesman from dividing his attention.

In the first sentence the comma is necessary to show that the telegram was not enclosed in the letter. In the second, if the comma were omitted, you would read *tall* and *heavily* together. In the third, the comma prevents ambiguity.

RULE XV. *Words or phrases contrasted with each other should be separated by commas.*

1. You should file claim with the railroad company, *not with us.*
2. There are few positions, *but many applicants.*

RULE XVI. *A quotation consisting of a single sentence should be set off by a comma except as designated in Rule XIX, on page 122.*

1. Mr. Bush said, "We will accept orders mailed before July 7."
2. "We will accept orders mailed before July 7," said Mr. Bush.

LESSON TWENTY-NINE

PUNCTUATION (*Continued*)

THE SEMICOLON

RULE XVII. *Members of a compound sentence not connected by* ***and, but, or, nor,*** *or* ***neither*** *should be separated by a semicolon.*

In some states the landlord must keep the premises in repair; in others the law makes no such provision.

Sometimes the members of a compound sentence are united by a set of connectives which are really adverbs rather than conjunctions.[1] The list includes the following:

accordingly	then	in fact
consequently	therefore	at least
however	so	at last
indeed	yet	of course
nevertheless	hence	

When a statement is joined to another by one of the foregoing, the semicolon should be used — thus:

1. It looked as if the sugar market would break within a month; *accordingly* we began marking down the price and disposing of our large supply.
2. We cannot believe that you have personally overlooked your indebtedness to us; *consequently* we are writing merely to remind you of your past-due account.
3. If you can send your note for the amount by return mail, we will accept that; *however* we prefer a draft or your personal check.

[1] C. H. Ward: *Sentence and Theme*, page 314.

4. Orders came in faster yesterday; *in fact* we received double the usual number.

When a statement beginning with *for example, for instance,* or *for illustration* follows another, the semicolon should be used:

We have been unusually unfortunate this spring; *for example,* we could not secure transportation for any of our cotton goods.

If you wish to secure greater emphasis, however, you should make the statements thus united stand as separate sentences.

RULE XVIII. *The members of a compound sentence should be separated by a semicolon when they contain commas even though the connective is expressed.*

We are sure you do not wish us to discriminate against any of our customers; however, if we accept the return of the goods we have shipped, we shall be doing so.

THE COLON

RULE XIX. *The colon should be used to announce an explanation, enumeration, or quotation to follow after such expressions as* ***as follows, in the following manner, the following, thus, this, these, one, two,*** *etc.*

1. Please ship us by fast freight *the following:*
   20 doz. pint cans Sweet Corn
   12 pails No. 2 Mackerel
   15 cases Royal Baking Powder
2. Some of the articles to be included in our September sale are

as follows: hats, shirts, neckwear, traveling bags, and shoes.

3. There were *two* reasons why he failed: He was lazy, and he had no credit.

The expression that follows the colon may be one or more independent statements or questions. In this case it should be capitalized:

1. I sent him *this* telegram: "Kindly extend time on contract at least one week."
2. *These* things should be kept in mind: Prices are subject to change without notice. All prices are f.o.b. point of storage.
3. *This* can be said of the First Bank and Trust Company: It has never lost a dollar of capital for any estate for which it has made an investment.

A mere list of particulars, however, should not begin with a capital — thus:

The merchant sold the following goods: shoes, hats, neckwear, and handkerchiefs.

RULE XX. *The colon should generally be used after the salutation of a letter.*

1. Dear Sir:
2. Gentlemen:

THE DASH

RULE XXI. *The dash should be used to mark an abrupt change in thought or in sentence structure.*

1. The price of sugar suddenly rose — whether on account of a shortage of the supply or not, no one seemed to know.
2. You will see that trucks do more than increase territory — they multiply it.
3. Then the company — but that is another story.

RULE XXII. *An explanatory expression at the end of a sentence should ordinarily be set off by a dash.*

1. You develop confidence in yourself — the greatest single asset a salesman can have.
2. Life insurance policies fall into three groups — whole-life, term, and endowment.

Sometimes such expressions are introduced by *such as*, *as*, *that is*, *for example*, or *for instance*.

Car manufacturers want something automatic—*that is*, something that will keep the gasoline above the carburetor continually.

Namely, however, is usually preceded by a semicolon and followed by a comma.

Property is of two kinds; *namely*, real and personal.

Sometimes explanatory matter is set in the midst of the sentence. In this case a dash is needed both before and after the expression — thus:

1. A number of articles of furniture — library tables, buffets, dining-room chairs, and iron beds — are offered at a discount.
2. These two kinds — that is, the warranty deed and the quit-claim deed — are now about the only kinds made.

RULE XXIII. *A dash may be used to set off parenthetical expressions wherever commas would not give sufficient emphasis or would be confusing.*

These written promises to pay — for indeed they are promises — are called promissory notes.

RULE XXIV. *A dash should follow a list of particulars when there is a summarizing phrase or clause.*[1]

[1] A summarizing phrase or clause is one that presents a summary of what has preceded.

To act as trustee of property, to manage real property, to act as receiver for defunct concerns, and to act as depository for trust funds, securities, and other personal property — these are the powers granted to trust companies.

No other mark of punctuation is so expressive as the dash. Writers of sales letters and advertisements use it again and again to point out a part of the sentence on which they wish to lay special stress. There is a great danger in the too frequent use of the dash by lazy writers, who use it because it is easy to apply. You can avoid this error by using the dash only when there is a real need for it, as shown in Rules XXI to XXIV.

Note the advantage in emphasis through the use of the dash in the following sentences gathered from sales letters and advertisements:

1. We sell them — Cords and Fabrics.
2. Remember, — and this will save you road trouble, — there is only one best cord tire.
3. The best is put in — to bring the best out.
4. Our bungalows are just what you will want — new — modern — convenient — beautiful — and at a price you can't resist.

THE QUOTATION MARKS

RULE XXV. *A direct quotation should be enclosed in quotation marks.*[1]

Mr. Baker said, "We should have ordered the goods to be returned immediately to you."

Note that a direct quotation begins with a capital letter and is set off by a comma. However, if it is long or very

[1] A direct quotation is one that repeats the exact words of a speaker or writer.

formal, it should be preceded by a colon. No comma is needed in such expressions as this: Yesterday I received a "please remit."

Remember that neither the comma nor quotation marks are needed unless the exact words of the speaker are quoted — thus:

> Mr. Baker said that they should have ordered the goods immediately returned to us.

Quotations are often broken by such expressions as *said he, replied she,* etc. In such cases, enclose both halves in quotation marks and set off the expressions *said he,* etc., by commas — thus:

> "We should," said Mr. Baker, "have ordered the goods to be returned immediately to you."

RULE XXVI. *If several paragraphs are quoted, place marks before each separate paragraph, but after only the last.*

When the quotation covers several consecutive sentences in the same paragraph the marks should be placed before the first only and at the close.

RULE XXVII. *A quotation within a quotation requires single marks.*

> Mr. Haines then continued, "In my letter of November 4 I said, 'We cannot accept the return of the merchandise because it was shipped according to contract;' you have failed to reply to this statement."

RULE XXVIII. *Titles of articles, poems, magazines, and books when quoted should be enclosed in quotation marks or underlined. If printed, they may be enclosed in quotation marks, italicized, or set in small capitals.*

I have a copy of Smith's "Office Training."
I have a copy of Smith's *Office Training.*

RULE XXIX. *Write the quotation marks outside the period or comma when they come together. Write them outside the interrogation point, colon, semicolon, and exclamation point if these marks belong to the quoted matter; otherwise write them inside.*

The cashier said, "Did you lock the vault?" and rushed inside.
Do you agree with those who cry "Tariff for revenue only"?

PARENTHESES

Parentheses are gradually falling into disuse in correspondence, being supplanted by commas and dashes. They are used in the following two cases:

1. To enclose references which have no grammatical relation to the sentence — as:

Winter top No. 29 (see illustration on next page) can be fitted to any of our models.

2. In legal documents to exclose figures repeated in numerals after being written in words — as:

We agree to pay one hundred dollars ($100) on demand with interest from date at six per cent (6%).

For use of the APOSTROPHE see pages 8 and 12–14.

HYPHEN

RULE XXX. *A hyphen is placed between the parts of many compound words.*

Note the following:

By-laws, by-product, cross-purpose, ex-president, half-yearly, ninety-six, non-delivery, one-quarter (used adjectively), *self-addressed, self-starter, trade-mark*, etc. Write as separate words: *en route, per cent, parcel post, post office, any time*, and *all right*. Write as one word: *anyhow, anything, anywhere, bookkeeper, inasmuch, leeway, misspelling, notebook, northeast,*

overdue, oversight, postdate, postscript, railroad, rewrite, semi-annual, somehow, stockholder, storehouse, textbook, warehouse, and *whatever.*

RULE XXXI. *A hyphen should be used at the end of a line when it is necessary to divide the last word.*

Do not break a word unless you can thereby improve your margin. As a general rule, divide according to pronunciation, making the separation between syllables and whenever possible after accented ones.

1. Be careful not to separate combinations of letters pronounced together. Say *knowl-edge, instruc-tion. Wrong:* know-ledge, instr-uction.
2. Words of one syllable are not divided — as, *freight, through, train, jumped.*
3. Do not divide a word when the separation would leave one letter standing alone — as, *about, ahead, around, item.* Also words of two syllables pronounced as one are not divided — as, *only.*
4. Divide usually between consonants when a consonant is doubled or is followed by another consonant — as, *com-mit-tee, finan-cier, paral-lel, struc-ture.*
5. Generally a prefix or suffix can be separated from the rest of the word — as, *bi-ennial, dur-able, pre-payment, invest-ment.*
6. Hyphenated words should be divided at the hyphen only — as, *object-lesson, self-addressed.*
7. Numbers expressed in figures are not usually divided.
8. Do not divide proper names, especially the name of a person.
9. If a vowel alone forms a syllable in the middle of a word, do not carry the vowel over. Write the word as follows: *colo-nies, sepa-rate.*
10. The word *nothing* should not be divided.
11. Do not divide the last word of a paragraph or the last word of a page.
12. Do not begin a line with a hyphen.

LESSON THIRTY

Special Cases in Punctuation

the parts of a letter

Envelope Addressing. Some houses omit punctuation at the end of the lines in envelope addresses, but a majority use so-called conservative punctuation. This requires a comma at the end of each line, except the last, which is followed by a period. When two items — for example, the name of the city and the state — occupy the same line, they should be separated by a comma, and abbreviations should always be followed by a period — thus:

Sacramento, Cal.

If city and state are written on separate lines, they appear as follows:

Sacramento,
California.

or

Sacramento,
Cal.

It is not necessary to place # or *No.* before numbers, and *th* and *d* and *nd* which are properly omitted after figures in dates may be either included or omitted in addresses. Write street name and number as follows:

150 West Sixty-second Street,
150 West 62d Street, 150 West 62nd Street,
150 W. 62 St.

The following illustrations show the correct punctuation of the envelope address:

Jacoby Brothers,
331 S. Broadway,
Los Angeles,
California.

or

Jacoby Bros.,
331 S. Broadway,
Los Angeles, Cal.

Letter Headings. What has been said of the punctuation of the envelope address, applies also to the heading. The following shows correct punctuation:

5500 Euclid Avenue,
Cleveland, Ohio,
December 16, 1923.

or

5500 Euclid Avenue,
Cleveland, Ohio,
Dec. 16, 1923.

Business houses use printed or engraved letterheads, consisting generally of the firm name, address, and character of the business. When the letterhead is used, place the date on the right-hand side, usually three spaces below the printed matter. The following letterhead shows the correct form and punctuation:

METAL DEPARTMENT
S. G. ADAMS STAMP AND STATIONERY CO.
ADAMS BUILDING

April 21, 1923.

The Inside Address. The inside address consists of the same items as the envelope address, and therefore requires the same punctuation.

The Salutation. The salutation should be followed by a colon — thus:

Dear Sir:
Gentlemen:

The Complimentary Close. Only the first word of the complimentary close should be capitalized, and a comma should be placed at the end — thus:

Yours truly,
Yours respectfully,

There are no such abbreviations as *Yrs.* and *Respy.*

Office Style. The office style governs questions of punctuation and abbreviation where choice is permitted. It should be uniform. That is, if words are spelled out in full on the envelope, they must be in the letter, and vice versa. If commas or periods are used at the end of some lines, they must appear at the end of all lines.

COMMERCIAL FORMS

Checks. In the upper right-hand corner of the check is the name of the city and state, together with date line. A comma should follow the name of the city and the state and the month and day. The name of the bank is generally printed in large capitals in the center above the body of the check. It need not be followed by a comma. In the printed forms, the date, the name of the payee, and the amount of the check are all that need to be added. The number of dollars should be spelled out, beginning with a capital letter. The fraction of a dollar should be written close to the number of dollars, and all the remaining blank space should be occupied by a line to prevent insertion of words. The signature need not be followed by a period. The following shows the correct form and punctuation:

Check No. 35 St. Louis, Mo., February 4, 1923

FIRST NATIONAL BANK

Pay to the order of ——— James Doe ——————— $75.00
Seventy-five and 00/100 ——————————— Dollars

Arthur Blake

Bills. A bill should show the names of the parties buying and selling, the date and place of sale, and the kind, quantity, and price of goods sold. In the upper right-

hand corner occur the names of the city and state, and the date. They are written in the same line usually, and the items are separated by commas. A period is not necessary after the names of the persons buying and selling or the terms of sale. No punctuation should be used at the close of the different items of goods. The names of the articles sold are capitalized, but not the quantities. The following shows correct form and punctuation:

A BILL

Des Moines, Iowa, January 4, 1923

Mr. Calvin Brown, Jr.
Bought of Page & Company
Terms: 30 days net

	1 bbl. Gold Medal Flour	$10.00	$10.00	
	2 doz. cans Tomatoes	2.60	5.20	
	1 doz. cans Corn	2.00	2.00	
				$17.20
	Rec'd Payment Jan. 10, 1921 Page & Company Per E. A. White			

Receipts. The names of the city and state, and the date should be written on a single line in the upper right-hand corner. The items are separated by commas, but no period need be used at the close. The amount of money received is spelled out and should begin with a capital letter. The signature need not be followed by a period. The following shows correct form and punctuation:

Chicago, Ill., March 1, 1923

Received of ——————— Frank Ellis ———————

Fifty-five and 00/100 ——————————— Dollars

for rent from March 1 to April 1, 1923.

$55.00 James Carew

Notes. Like a check, a note has the names of the city and state, and the date in the upper right-hand corner. The items are separated by commas. There is no end punctuation throughout. The amount for which the note is drawn should begin with a capital letter. The following shows correct form and punctuation:

$100.00 San Francisco, Cal., June 20, 1923

Three months after date, I promise to pay to the order of ——————————— James Howard ———————

One hundred and 00/100 ——————————— Dollars

Value received, with interest at 6%

Franklin Bell

Drafts. What has already been said of the punctuation of checks applies also to drafts. In the lower left-hand corner is placed the name of the person or the bank on which the draft is drawn and the address. The items of the address are separated by commas. The following displays correct form and punctuation:

$171.00 # 1812

Lake Village, Ark., July 20, 1923

First National Bank

Pay to the order of ——— Caleb Welch —— $171.00

One hundred seventy-one and 00/100 ——————— Dollars

To the First National Bank Carl Hart

Chicago, Ill. Cashier

HOW TO EXPRESS NUMBERS

In ordinary writing in which numbers do not occur frequently, spell all amounts from one to one hundred inclusive, and also round numbers.

1. There are *eighty-three* people in our employ.
2. The paper contained *five hundred* signatures.

Note, however, that in writing numbers of five or more digits in the thousands it is preferable to use figures whenever it would be awkward to spell them. For example, you should express *twenty-one thousand* in words, but 21,512 in figures.[1]

The following special rules will be found helpful:

1. Spell numbers or signs beginning a sentence or immediately following a colon. In such cases, if you prefer, you may change the arrangement of the sentence.

1. *Seventy-five* dollars is too much.
2. *Plus* and *minus* sometimes occur together in algebra. (Not + and −.)
3. *Fifty* or *sixty* orders were received. (Not "*Fifty or 60* orders were received.")

2. When two numbers occur together, express one of them in words — thus:

1. Ten 5-room cottages
2. Seven 8-inch guns
3. 150 Fifth Avenue

3. Express in words the time of day. In time-tables, however, figures are used.

1. Eight-thirty
2. Ten o'clock

[1] W. R. Bowlin and George L. Marsh: *Vocational English*, page 168.

4. Express in words sums of money less than a dollar. If associated with several other sums, use figures.

Fifty cents was the admission fee.

5. Express ages in words.

The secretary was *fifty* years of age.

In writing that involves the frequent enumeration of weights, measures, distances, sums of money, dates, degrees, percentages, proportions, stocks and bonds, etc., figures are much more freely used. This applies especially to adjustment letters, collection letters, order letters, contracts, and to statistics of any kind. The following special rules should prove helpful:

1. Express dates in figures, but spell the month.

June 25, 1921. (Not 6/25/21)

2. Express in figures sums of money amounting to $1 or more.

$9.75

3. Express in figures hyphenated house numbers and street numbers.

1014 N. 110th Street

4. Express per cents, degrees, and ratios in figures.

1. 7 per cent interest
2. Longitude 70° 05′ 08″ E
3. The ratio is 3 to 5.

5. Express in figures a list of articles such as may occur in inquiries or statements about them.

Please send 3 doz. No. 1237 shirts.

LESSON THIRTY–ONE

Capitalization

Capital letters are used to attract attention to certain words. This is, of course, a broad statement — broad enough indeed to include the capitalization of each word in whole statements in sales letters and advertisements. There are, however, a number of well-defined rules which good usage has developed and by which you should be guided in your writing.

Use a capital letter to begin the following:

1. Every sentence, every direct quotation, and the first word of every line of poetry.

2. Every proper noun — as, *Marshall Field, Swift & Company, Philadelphia, President, Senate, Congress.*

3. The names of directions when they refer to sections of the country — as:

> The *South* has always produced great quantities of cotton.

But not when they don't — as:

> The factory is *north* of the station.

4. The names of the days of the week and of the months of the year, but not the names of the seasons unless they are personified — as, *Monday, Tuesday, January, February, spring, summer,* etc.

5. The names of holidays and festivals — as, *Christmas, Easter, Labor Day, Fourth of July, Thanksgiving, Shrove Tuesday.*

6. The names of paintings, statues, tombs, monuments, and relics of public interest — as, *The Angelus, Statue of*

Liberty, Grant's Tomb, Washington's Monument, Liberty Bell.

7. Names of popular appellations — as, *Hoosier State, City of Brotherly Love, Windy City, Wall Street, Yankee,* etc.

8. Names of executive departments, bureaus, commissions, etc., of the state and national governments.

Department of Commerce and Labor
Public Service Commission
Interstate Commerce Commission

9. Names of offices and divisions of the army and the word *army* when it is a proper name — as, *Infantry, Cavalry, Field Artillery, First Regiment, American Army.*

10. The names of public buildings — as, *Carnegie Library, Municipal Courts Building, Independence Hall.*

11. The names of church denominations, political parties, and other organizations except college classes — as, *Presbyterian Church, Democratic Party, Masonic Fraternity, Knights of Columbus, Chamber of Commerce,* but *class of 1906.*

12. The names of streets, avenues, alleys, courts, lanes, roads, rivers, lakes, and mountains — as, *Michigan Avenue, Market Street, Ohio River, Rocky Mountains.* But write *Mississippi* and *Ohio rivers.*

13. Titles used in connection with the names of persons — as, *Governor Smith, ex-President Taft, King George, General Pershing.*

14. The names of offices and titles of honor, particularly those pertaining to the President of the United States, when they refer to a particular person or thing. (Do not capitalize *presidential.*)

1. The *Governor* signed a very important labor bill.
2. The *Commander in Chief* made a short address to the Business Men's League.
3. The *President* did all in his power to favor business men.

15. *Father, mother, brother,* and *sister,* when used with a name.

1. Then *Mother Macey* helped each of us to find employment.
2. We asked *Father Dempsey* to settle the strike.

Sometimes, as a mark of courtesy, they are capitalized as, "We asked Father to retain his interest in the business."

16. The names of townships, counties, states, and other political divisions of the country — as, *Logan Township, Gibson County, Illinois, New England States.*

17. The names of the *Deity* and the words *Bible* and *Scripture,* together with the names of the books of the Bible — as, *God, Saviour, Jesus, Holy Ghost, Genesis.*

18. Every proper adjective — as, *American, English, Smithsonian.* Many words of this class, referring to merchandise, however, are now written with a small letter. Remember to use small letters when writing the following:

brussels carpet	mercerized lining
chinaware	morocco binding
gothic architecture	oriental rugs
india ink	pasteurized milk
india rubber	roman type
macadamized road	russia leather

19. Every important word in the title of a book, article, poem, or theme. Do not capitalize *a, an, the,* and prepositions and conjunctions unless they stand first.

The Demands of the Times
The Elements of Business

20. The words *I* and *O*.

21. Terms used with Roman numerals — as, *Section III*, *Chapter X*, *Group V*, *Plate II*, etc.

22. The initials of proper names, the abbreviations of titles and of degrees:

D. S. Jordan, LL.D.
Gov. John M. Parker

23. Trade names — as, *Gold Dust*, *Sunshine Biscuits*, *Bon Ami*, *Shredded Wheat*, etc. Only the distinguishing name of common products need be capitalized — as, *Good Luck rubbers*, *Eagle pencil*, *Holeproof silk stockings*, etc.

24. Important words in headings and salutations of letters — as, *Gentlemen*, *Dear Sir*, *My dear Sir*, etc. Capitalize only the first word in the complimentary close — as, *Yours truly*, *Yours respectfully*.

25. Abbreviated words such as *No.*, *Co.*, *R.R.*, *O. K.*, etc.

CAPITALIZATION OF ABBREVIATIONS

Do not capitalize *a.m.* and *p.m.* meaning *before noon* and *after noon*. The United States Government Printing Office and a majority of the largest business concerns write these abbreviations with small letters. They may, however, be expressed with small capitals. The expression *free on board* is written f.o.b. — small letters. Remember, however, to write C.O.D. — all capitals.

CAPITALS IN SALES LETTERS

Frequently in sales letters and in advertisements the name of the product is spelled out in capitals in order to

secure more attention. The most important phrase or clause in a strong statement, or even the whole sentence, may be written all capitals. In a sales letter sent out by a large insurance company recently occurs this statement, the last part in capitals: "Without your written permission, filed with the Company before your death, *YOUR WIFE CAN NEVER CHANGE THE INCOME SETTLEMENT.*" Capitalization for this purpose, however, should not become too profuse, for it would be likely to defeat its own purpose — it would distribute attention, not center it. Select with great care the sentences or parts of sentences that deserve this special badge of attention.

LESSON THIRTY–TWO

Abbreviations

In written composition, except that of a technical nature, abbreviations should be used sparingly. There are, however, a few that are almost always used; namely, *etc.*, *e.g.*, *viz.*, *a.m.*, *p.m.*, A.D. and B.C. In business correspondence also, the body of the letter should be free from unnecessary abbreviations, though here, of course, *Co.*, *C.O.D.* and *f.o.b.* must be added to the list just given. Unless the nature of the work is such that it would save a great deal of time and space, not many more should be used.

The following suggestions should be helpful:

1. Do not abbreviate the word *company* unless it is part of a firm name — as, *The Thomas Milling Co.* Some companies object to its abbreviation even here.

2. The abbreviation *No.* should be used only with figures — as, *No.* 12. Say *No. 8* or *number eight*, not *number 8.*

3. Do not use *rec'd*, *resp'y*, *y'rs*, *bl'd'g*, and *Sup't.* Write out *received*, *respectfully*, and *yours.* The correct abbreviations for *building* and *superintendent* are *bldg.* and *Supt.*

4. Do not use *R.R.* and *Ry.* for *railroad* and *railway* in the body of the letter unless they are part of a company's name — as, *The Wabash R.R. Co.*

5. Although an abbreviation of *per centum*, the expression *per cent* is not generally followed by a period.

6. The contracted forms *1st*, *2d*, *3d*, *4th*, etc., are not followed by a period.

7. Avoid & for *and* except in a company name and do not use &c for *etc.* Never say *and etc.*

8. *Per*, *via*, *re*, and *Miss* are not abbreviations and therefore should not be followed by a period. *Re* means *regarding*, *per* means *by*, and *via* means *by way of*.

9. Use the apostrophe in such abbreviations as *O.K'd*, but write *O.K.ing*.

ABBREVIATIONS OF THE NAMES OF STATES

The following are the abbreviations approved by the Government Printing Office. Note that the shortest names, *Idaho*, *Iowa*, *Maine*, *Ohio*, and *Utah* should not be abbreviated.

Alabama	Ala.	Nebraska	Nebr.
Arizona	Ariz.	Nevada	Nev.
Arkansas	Ark.	New Hampshire	N. H.
California	Cal.	New Jersey	N. J.
Colorado	Col.	New Mexico	N. Mex.
Connecticut	Conn.	New York	N. Y.
Delaware	Del.	North Carolina	N. C.
District of Columbia	D. C.	North Dakota	N. Dak.
Florida	Fla.	Oklahoma	Okla.
Georgia	Ga.	Oregon	Oreg.
Illinois	Ill.	Pennsylvania	Pa.
Indiana	Ind.	Rhode Island	R. I.
Kansas	Kans.	South Carolina	S. C.
Kentucky	Ky.	South Dakota	S. Dak.
Louisiana	La.	Tennessee	Tenn.
Maryland	Md.	Texas	Tex.
Massachusetts	Mass.	Vermont	Vt.
Michigan	Mich.	Virginia	Va.
Minnesota	Minn.	Washington	Wash.
Mississippi	Miss.	West Virginia	W. Va.
Missouri	Mo.	Wisconsin	Wis.
Montana	Mont.	Wyoming	Wyo.

ABBREVATIONS OF THE NAMES OF THE MONTHS

The names of the months are always capitalized and, therefore, their abbreviations should begin with a capital letter. Note that the shortest names, *May*, *June*, and *July*, should not be abbreviated.

January	Jan.	September	Sept.
February	Feb.	October	Oct.
March	Mar.	November	Nov.
April	Apr.	December	Dec.
August	Aug.		

SOME COMMON COMMERCIAL ABBREVIATIONS

A 1	first-class	C. O. D.	collect on delivery
Acct. or a/c	account		
Agt.	agent	Cor. Sec.	Corresponding Secretary
a.m. (*ante meridiem*)	forenoon	C. P. A.	Certified Public Accountant
Assn. or Ass'n	Association		
Asst. or Ass't	Assistant	Cr.	Creditor, credit
Atty.	attorney	cwt.	hundredweight or hundredweights
Ave.	avenue		
av.	average		
bal.	balance	Dept.	department
bbl. or brl.	barrel	dft.	draft
B/L or B. L.	bill of lading	disc. or disct.	discount
Bs/L	bills of lading	do. (ditto)	the same
Bldg.	building	dol.	dollar
bot.	bought	doz.	dozen or dozens
Boul. or Blvd.	boulevard	Dr.	debit, debtor
Bros.	brothers	*et al* (*et alii*)	and others
bu.	bushel	Exch.	exchange
bus.	bushels	Exec.	Executor
c.	cent	f. o. b.	free on board
c/o	in care of	ford. or for'd	forward

gal.	gallon	pcs.	pieces
G. P. A.	General Passenger Agent	pd.	paid
		pk.	peck
hhd.	hogshead	pkgs.	packages
h. p. or H. P.	horsepower	p.m. (*post meridiem*)	afternoon
i.e. (*id est*)	that is	P. O.	post office
Inc.	incorporated	pr.	pair, price
Ins.	inspector, insurance	Pres.	President
		Prin.	Principal
int.	interest	P. S.	postscript
inv.	invoice	pt.	pint
invt.	inventory	qt.	quart
jour.	journal	rect.	receipt
Jr. or jr.	junior	Rec. Sec.	Recording Secretary
lb.	pound		
M. (mille)	thousand	rev.	revise, revision
mdse.	merchandise	R. R.	railroad
mem. or memo.	memorandum	Ry.	railway
Messrs. (Messieurs)	gentlemen	s. c.	small capitals
mfg.	manufacturing	Sec.	Secretary
		Sr. or sr.	senior
mfrs.	manufacturers	ss.	to wit
		St.	street
mfs.	manufactures	Supt.	Superintendent
Mgr.	Manager		
mo.	month	Treas.	Treasurer
MS.	manuscript	Vice Pres.	Vice President
MSS.	manuscripts		
N.B. (*nota bene*)	note well	viz. (videlicet)	namely
No.	number	vs. (versus)	against
O. K.	all correct	W/B or W. B.	waybill
oz.	ounce or ounces	W/Bs	waybills
		wt.	weight
payt.	payment		

LESSON THIRTY-THREE

Unity of the Sentence

Careless writers often express two or more unrelated thoughts in the same sentence — as:

1. We are at a loss to understand why you did not keep your promise to remit, and we have begun many suits lately to collect past-due accounts.
2. St. Louis should always extend a hearty welcome to manufacturers, and it has one of the largest parks in the United States.

Sometimes a sentence contains two ideas that it is really absurd to connect — as:

Mr. Annis was a successful manufacturer, but he died in California.

Sometimes also a sentence contains too many members or is unduly lengthened by the addition of several subordinate clauses — as:

1. We agree that it is somewhat late to address you in regard to this, but we are trying to get your account in proper balance, and as you know we are having a hard problem to solve in handling our returned goods, we have been unable to give everything its proper attention.
2. We have some customers who wish to return goods which were shipped according to the contract which we have taken great pains to make clear to all that do business with us.

But quite often there is not enough in the sentence. For example, a subordinate clause will be mistaken for a sentence and made to stand alone — as:

You having made no effort to pay your past-due account.
Although we have extended to you most courteous treatment.

Again, a relative clause will be connected with a statement by *and* or *but*, when the connectives should be omitted — as:

We wrote you January 7 about the invoices of October and November *and* which should have been paid before the Christmas holidays.

Sometimes there is a needless change of the subject — as:

Our Iowa representative visited the house today, and business in his territory was reported good.

Note the improvement when the subject is made the same — as:

Our Iowa representative visited the house and reported business good in his territory.

In all of the foregoing cases, the writers failed to make their meanings clear because they did not express their thoughts, one at a time, in complete units. That is, their sentences lacked unity.

Unity in the sentence is the expression of but one main idea.

RULE I. *Do not unite two or more statements unless they are closely related in thought.*

Original: I was greatly disappointed this morning to find that your check had not yet reached us, and I told the manager of the Credit Department that you would pay your bills promptly.

Improved: Several months ago I told the manager of the Credit Department that you would pay your bills promptly. This morning, however, I was greatly disappointed to find that your check had not reached us.

RULE II. *Do not include in the same sentence inconsistent or absurd ideas.*

1. *Original:* Hoping to hear from you at an early date, we trust that you will find the sale of our line satisfactory.

   Improved: We hope to hear from you at an early date. Meanwhile we trust that you will find the sale of our goods satisfactory.

2. *Original:* The hat was undoubtedly crushed in shipping, and it was a John B. Stetson hat.

   Improved: This Stetson hat was undoubtedly crushed in shipping.

RULE III. *Do not use* **and** *or* **but** *to connect a relative clause with a sentence.*

1. *Original:* Referring to your account on our books, we find that since the date of this statement you have paid us $155.51, *and* which remittance we appreciate.

   Improved: We appreciate the payment of $155.51 which our record of your account shows you made since your last statement.

2. *Original:* We have received many orders from Mr. W. A. Miller, a well-known retailer, and *who* understands the conditions in that part of the state.

   Improved: We have received many orders from Mr. W. A. Miller, a well-known retailer, who understands conditions in that part of the state.

RULE IV. *A sentence should not contain too many members even though they are closely related in thought.*

1. *Original:* This statement is sent for comparison, and if, at your convenience, you will be kind enough to check it over and if found to be correct, favor us with a remittance, we shall be enabled to balance your account down to the point mentioned.

   Improved: This statement is sent for comparison. Please check it over at your convenience, and if you find it correct, favor us with a remittance. We shall then be able to balance your account down to the time mentioned.

2. *Original:* We are sure you do not wish us to discriminate against our good customers; however, we do just this, if we waive interest in your favor while other customers who for some reason could not pay for their purchases on the maturity date allow us interest for the overtime.

Improved: We are sure you do not wish us to discriminate against our good customers who for some reason could not pay for their purchases on the maturity date and have allowed us interest for the overtime. If, however, we waive interest in your favor, this is precisely what we do.

RULE V. *Do not mistake a phrase or a clause for a complete sentence.*

1. *Original:* We do not urge our customers to put their private funds into these bonds. Although we have ourselves bought heavily of them.

Improved: Although we have bought heavily of these bonds, we do not urge our customers to put their private funds into them.

2. *Original:* We shipped one case June 7, price twenty-seven dollars. The other June 23, price thirty-six dollars.

Improved: We shipped one case June 7, price twenty-seven dollars, and the other June 23, price thirty-six dollars.

RULE VI. *When clauses, phrases, and single parts of speech are connected by* ***and, or, but, either — or, neither — nor,*** *etc., they should be made similar in form.*

Careless writers often join a clause and a phrase by one of the foregoing connectives when both expressions should be clauses or nouns.

1. *Original:* We could not continue longer in business, *for very few orders had come in* and *on account of the high cost of labor.*

Improved: We could not continue longer in business, *for very few orders had come in* and *the cost of labor was high.*

2. *Original:* The company decided *that it would raise the wages of its employees* and *to grant them a bonus.*
   Improved: The company decided *to raise the wages of its employees* and *to grant them a bonus.*
3. *Original:* *As we have written you many letters* and *no reply having been received,* we are placing your account in the hands of our attorney for collection.
4. *Improved:* *As we have written you many letters* and *have received no reply,* we are placing your account in the hands of our attorney for collection.

Careless writers also unconsciously shift from one form of the verb to another, from present time to past time, and from one pronoun to another — as, "My duties are *to answer the telephone* and *filing letters.*" This of course should be written: "My duties are *to answer the telephone* and *file letters.*"

The following sentences illustrate these types of errors:

1. *Original:* Mr. Hart *will call* on you in a few days, and samples of our goods *will be shown* to you.
   Improved: Mr. Hart *will call* on you in a few days and *show* you samples of our goods.
2. *Original:* Just then a customer *comes* in and *wanted* to return some goods which she had bought.
   Improved: Just then a customer *came* in and *wanted* to exchange some goods which she had bought.
3. *Original:* We appreciate *his going on the road for us* and *that he has made money for us.*
   Improved: We appreciate *his going on the road for us* and *his making money for us.*
4. *Original:* We regret *being unable to replace the broken chair* and *that you have decided not to give us future orders.*

Improved: We regret *that we are unable to replace the broken chair* and *that you have decided not to give us future orders.*

RULE VII. *Avoid any needless change of the subject.*

1. *Original: You* may give us a promissory note for the amount, or a *check* may be sent by you.
   Improved: You may give us a promissory note for the amount or send us your personal check.
2. *Original:* Our *salesman* will call on you next week, and our *proposition* will be explained to you in detail.
   Improved: Our *salesman* will call on you next week and explain our proposition in detail.

LESSON THIRTY-FOUR

Clearness in the Sentence

Clearness requires that the various parts of the sentence should be so carefully arranged as to make the meaning unmistakable. Observe a watchmaker at work. How carefully he places each tiny piece in its proper place, and how exact he makes every detail of his work. Before the watch will run and keep accurate time, every part must be rightly arranged in relation to the whole. The watch will run and keep correct time only when its parts are perfectly adjusted. In precisely the same way, the sentence can do its work best only when each part is in its proper position.

In order that you may correctly arrange the details of a sentence, you should keep in mind the following principles:

1. Every modifier — word, phrase, or clause — should be so placed that it will qualify or be properly related to the word intended. For example, do not say, "I *only* deducted two per cent." Say, "I deducted *only* two per cent."
2. Every pronoun should refer unmistakably to the noun or pronoun for which it stands. It is incorrect to say, "Mr. Field told his father *he* would succeed." We do not know whether the pronoun refers to Mr. Field or his father. Similarly, it is incorrect to say, "The books and tablets were received three days after we received the pencils. *This* was on January 15." It is better to say, "The books and tablets were received January 15, and the lead pencils January 12" (or January 18 and January 15, according to the meaning).
3. A summarizing word or expression — such as *these, all these,*

these and many more, etc. — should be used to collect the parts of a long subject — thus:

To act as trustee of property left with it as guardian of minors; to act as agent in the management of real property; to act as receiver for defunct concerns of all kinds and those needing reorganization; to act as depository for trust funds, securities, and other personal property — *these* are among the various powers granted to trust companies.

Clearness also requires accuracy of statement. For example, note the following: "There were twelve doz. shoe boxes in each of the twenty cases, and half of them were broken." As the statement stands, you cannot determine whether ten of the cases were broken or 120 dozen of the boxes. It is better to state the sentence as follows: "There were twenty cases each containing twelve dozen shoe boxes. Ten of the cases were broken."

In order to secure clearness in the sentence, the following rules should be carefully applied:

RULE I. *Adjectives and adverbs should be so placed that there can be no doubt as to what they modify.*

It is incorrect to say —

1. One pair of *black* ladies' stockings
2. Our *tailored* babies' coats
3. Special sale of *black calf* boys' school shoes
4. I *only* asked five dollars for the hat.
5. We *nearly* sold all the stock at a premium.
6. Every box was *not* broken.

Note the gain in clearness when the modifiers are rearranged:

1. One pair of ladies' *black* stockings
2. Our babies' *tailored* coats

3. Special sale of boys' *black calf* school shoes
4. I asked *only* five dollars for the hat.
5. We sold *nearly* all the stock at a premium.
6. *Not* every box was broken.

RULE II. *Like adjectives and adverbs, phrases and clauses should be so placed that they will modify the word intended.*

In the following sentences, the phrases and clauses are misplaced:

1. Your order was received Saturday *for two Victrolas.*
2. I saw a man wrapping bundles *with a Roman nose.*
3. We are sending you a statement amounting to $250 *of your account.*
4. Wanted: A horse for an old man *that is well broken.*
5. The stoves came yesterday in good condition *that I ordered.*

The same sentences, when correctly arranged, gain much in clearness:

1. Your order *for two Victrolas* was received Saturday.
2. I saw a man *with a Roman nose* wrapping bundles.
3. We are sending you a statement *of your account* which amounts to $250.
4. Wanted: A horse *that is well broken* for an old man.
5. The stoves *I ordered* came yesterday in good condition.

RULE III. *There should be a definitely expressed noun or pronoun for every participle or participial phrase to modify, and a participial modifier should be placed as near as possible to the word it modifies.*

The following are incorrectly written:

1. *Knowing your needs,* hundreds of fall raincoats have been placed on sale.
2. *Having secured a money order,* the bill was paid by me.
3. *Walking into the office,* a telegram was seen by the manager.

Note carefully the changes necessary to make the meaning clear:

1. *Knowing your needs,* we have placed hundreds of fall raincoats on sale.
2. *Having secured a money order,* I paid the bill.
3. *Walking into the office,* the manager saw a telegram.

RULE IV. *A sentence should be so constructed that the word to which a pronoun refers will be easily discoverable.*

The following sentences illustrate errors under this rule:

1. Mr. Lee's father entered the hardware business when *he* was quite young.
2. In the letter *it* says the goods were damaged.
3. We are interested in your gasoline-feed system, but *it* would not be worth our while considering *it* unless *it* is protected by patent.

Note the gain in clearness when the reference of each pronoun is made definite:

1. When Mr. Lee was quite young, his father entered the hardware business.
2. The letter says that the goods were damaged.
3. We are interested in your gasoline-feed system, but would not consider it unless the device were protected by patent.

RULE V. *When the subject of a sentence is long and contains a series of words, phrases, or clauses, both clearness and force may be obtained by the use of a summarizing word* — thus:

Government bonds, or those issued by the Federal Government; state and municipal bonds, or those issued by states, counties, school districts, cities, and villages; railroad bonds; public utility bonds, or those issued by street railways, water, gas,

and electric companies; industrial bonds, the issues of companies engaged in commercial and industrial enterprises — *these* are the different classes of bonds.

RULE VI. *Clearness requires accuracy of statement.*

The following sentences contain inaccuracies:

1. The enclosed *statement amounting* to $250 and showing a balance on your account down to date is now due.
2. The shipment of June 7 was for December shipment.

In the first of the foregoing, one should not speak of a statement as amounting to a certain sum because the sum referred to is evidently the balance due; and, in the second, the statement is so inaccurate as to make it a puzzle. Note how each may be improved:

1. The enclosed statement of your account shows a balance of $250, which is now due.
2. The goods sent you June 7 were originally intended for December shipment.

RULE VII. *Whenever possible use simple words, but use technical words if necessary.*

The following sentences contain expressions for which technical terms should be used:

1. Please send me two *packages* of Examination Paper.
2. We shipped you a *box* of shoes on Feb. 4.

Note the improvement in them when technical terms are substituted:

1. Please send me two *reams* of Examination Paper.
2. We shipped you a *case* of shoes on Feb. 4.

LESSON THIRTY-FIVE

Emphasis in the Sentence

A cleverly written advertisement never fails to arrest attention and secure interest. Have you ever paused to find out just why this is true? If so, you no doubt noticed the naturalness, newness, and charm of each expression, its directness and brevity, every word performing its work in the most effective way. You found important words and phrases in positions where they would compel attention, some of them chosen for headings and set in large type. In short, the entire advertisement was so constructed as to emphasize every fact. In much the same way, in all of your writing you should make your ideas stand out forcibly. Every sentence should possess emphasis.

Emphasis in the sentence is the force of an idea to attract attention. The following rules will be found effective in securing emphasis:

Rule I. *Avoid worn-out words and phrases and all meaningless expressions.*

To some extent, worn-out, or commonplace, expressions are likely to be found in writing of any kind, but especially in letter writing. There is perhaps a reason for this. Business letters have always been somewhat encumbered with legal expressions and with certain servile words and phrases, the relics of an overcourteous day. Then, too, certain convenient words have become overworked merely because people do not think carefully enough to find fresher expressions. The following expressions should be avoided:

1. *Advise.* This word is too often used for *inform* or *tell.*

2. *At hand, to hand, duly at hand,* etc. As these expressions are entirely useless, they should be avoided. It is better to refer in a very direct manner to a letter by giving subject and date — as, "I will accept the offer mentioned in your letter of June 8."

3. *Beg to say, beg to remain, beg to advise,* etc. These are servile expressions which are no longer excusable. Simply tell what you have to say. Do not say, "In reply we *beg to say* that we cannot accept the return of the shoes," but "We cannot accept the return of the shoes."

4. *Contents carefully noted.* This expression is useless if not entirely senseless. The fact that you reply will be evidence that the contents of the letter have been noted. Omit it entirely.

5. *Esteemed, esteemed favor, kind favor, kindly,* etc. These expressions of courtesy have become meaningless because used indiscriminately. In fact they have become almost servile. The word *favor* should not be used in the sense of *letter,* but may be employed to express its true meaning.

6. *Hand you.* This expression is inaccurate. It is better to say *enclose, send by parcel post,* etc.

7. *Herewith.* This word is unnecessary when used with *enclose.* It is greatly overworked.

8. *Inst., ult.,* and *prox.* These terms are rightly losing their place in modern business writing. It is much better to give the name of the month. For example, say *January* 10 rather than the 10*th inst.*

9. *Our Mr. Bennett.* This expression has become quite commonplace. Say *Mr. Bennett; our representative, Mr. Bennett;* etc.

10. *Recent date.* It is generally better to give the exact date. Do not say, " In response to your letter of recent date, would say that the merchandise was shipped according to contract." Say, " The merchandise which you mention in your letter of January 7 was shipped according to contract."

11. *Said* and *same.* These words belong to the long list of overworked legal terms. Instead of referring to a thing as *said letter*, *said contract*, etc., it is better to designate it definitely unless you are writing a legal document. For example, say *this letter*, the letter *of June 7*, etc. *Same* is an adjective, not a pronoun. Do not say, " We regret the delay in the shipment of your order of men's shoes and hope *same* has not caused you any inconvenience." Say, " We regret the delay in the shipment of your order of men's shoes and hope this has not caused you any inconvenience." The word *same* may be used with a noun or when a noun is understood — as, " This contract is the *same* (contract) as we have offered our other customers."

12. *State.* Try to use other words occasionally — for example, *say*, *tell*, *describe*, *present*, etc.

13. *We*, *I*, *the writer.* *We* is properly used in writing for a firm, but do not hesitate to use *I* whenever necessary. Do not, however, use *I* and *we* interchangeably. Some people in order to avoid *I* or *we* use *the writer.* It is better to use *I* or *we* whenever necessary. Do not say, "*The*

writer of this letter has charge of the Adjustment Department," but "I have charge of the Adjustment Department."

14. *Yours.* This is wrongly used for *your letter* or *yours truly.* The full expressions are much more desirable.

15. *Trite expressions at the close of a letter.* Avoid sentences beginning with *hoping*, *trusting*, *believing*, etc. It is better to say, " *We trust* that this will be satisfactory." Such terms also as *and oblige*, *I am*, and *I remain* should be omitted.

RULE II. *Avoid the roundabout, wordy phrasing of ideas that can be expressed directly and briefly.*

Careless writers often express their thoughts in long, roundabout phrases or clauses merely because they do not take the time to search for the simple expression that will convey the meaning directly. In the following sentences note this fault:

1. Answering your recent favor addressed to us, we would state that under separate cover we are mailing you samples of the different lines of letter paper that we carry, and trust you will find what you require among them.
2. As the sum in question is materially overdue, we feel that it should be paid and would thank you to let us have a remittance or advise in regard to your plans as to when you can make settlement.
3. It is our preference that customers remit direct, and therefore we trust that you will give this your first attention and send us your personal check.
4. We wrote you with reference to this item under date of June 27 advising as to the correctness of our charge and feel sure you will now be in position to let us have the $50 deducted at this time either in separate check or include in your next payment.

5. In regard to the $30 which you speak of, we would say that we find that this amount is entered on your account under date of July 30 and, with an additional credit of $0.47 posted under date of September 11, has been used to offset our debit entry of June 28, $30.47.

The foregoing sentences are not utterly bad, but can be restated in much briefer language. Note carefully the changes that are made in each:

1. We are mailing you the samples you asked for the other day and believe you will find among them just what you want.
2. As this sum is materially overdue, please remit by return mail or advise definitely concerning the payment of these bills.
3. As we prefer to have our customers remit direct, we trust you will send us your check by return mail.
4. We wrote you on July 27 that our charge was correct and feel sure you will prefer to send us a check for $50.
5. We find that the $30 you mention is entered on our account under date of July 30 and, with an additional credit of $0.47 entered under date of September 11, has been used to offset our debit entry of June 28, $30.47.

RULE III. *Avoid needless repetition of words and phrases.* Repetition sometimes secures emphasis, but as a rule it is to be avoided. Note the following examples:

1. We *collected together* all the boxes.
2. We have *repeatedly* warned you *again and again* that we cannot accept the return of goods sold according to contract.
3. The railway company *resold* the goods *again*.
4. *Knowing* that you will prefer to keep your credit good, we *know* that you will pay this bill.

5. We should have sent you two tables, *but* we had *but* one in stock.

Note the gain in emphasis when these sentences are restated without the repetitions:

1. We collected all the boxes.
2. We have repeatedly warned you that we cannot accept the return of goods sold according to contract.
3. The railway company resold the goods.
4. Knowing that you will prefer to keep your credit good, we believe you will pay this bill.
5. We should have sent you two tables, but had only one in stock.

RULE IV. *Avoid the telegraphic style of writing.*

In correspondence careless writers often omit pronoun subjects — for example, "Have received your letter of June 4." It is much better to write, "*We* have received your letter of June 4." They also frequently omit *a*, *an*, *the*, and other short words — for example, "Have received check and applied on open account." Note the gain in emphasis when stated as follows: "*We* have received *your* check and applied it on *your* open account." This fault, with the use of too many abbreviations, gives rise to what is sometimes called the telegraphic style of writing, which is only admissible in letters from one department to another in the same business establishment.

RULE V. *Emphasis may sometimes be secured by transposing words, phrases, or clauses.*

The very fact that an expression is taken out of its natural position and placed at the beginning of a sentence is sufficient to center attention upon it. To place a phrase

or clause at the beginning also affords variety of sentence structure. In the following sentences the phrases and clauses stand in the natural order:

1. We believe you will like the suit if you will wear it a few times.
2. You should have received the goods on April 10 according to the usual time required for shipments to reach your town.
3. I refer you to Mr. J. W. Saunders for further information as to my character and ability.

Note the gain in variety effected by transposing phrases and clauses:

1. *If you will wear the suit a few times,* we believe you will like it.
2. *According to the usual time required for shipments to reach your town,* you should have received the goods on April 10.
3. *For further information as to my character and ability,* I refer you to Mr. J. W. Saunders.

The second set of sentences is no better than the first; but such transpositions often give variety. For example, the following sentences are correct, but monotonous:

I came to your office at eight. You were not there, but had gone to the factory. I followed you to the factory. You were not there when I arrived. You had returned to the office. I went back to your office and found that you had left. I went home. I will come again to see you to-morrow.

Note how the transposition of words in one sentence and the union of two sentences have improved the paragraph as a whole.

I came to your office at eight. You were not there but had gone to the factory. I followed you to the factory and then back again to your office, but missing you at both places I went home. To-morrow I will come again to see you.

RULE VI. *Emphasis may be secured by so constructing the sentence that its meaning is incomplete or suspended until the end is reached.*[1]

The following sentences illustrate this type:

1. Except when she was called from her desk to consult with her employer, the stenographer never left her work for a moment.
2. Until a few weeks ago when we collected the claim from the railroad company, we had paid no attention to this invoice.
3. Walking into his office, the manager saw, lying on the floor before him, several important papers.

Sometimes changing the position of a phrase or clause will produce the desired result. For example, take the sentence, "Prices advanced every day as the war continued." This may be changed as follows: "*As the war continued*, prices advanced every day."

By changing the structure of a loose compound sentence, you may suspend the meaning to the end. For example, you may change one of the members to a subordinate clause or a participial phrase. The following are examples of loose compound sentences:

1. I have received no reply to my letter, and as the account is still open, I earnestly request that you take some action to effect a settlement.
2. You have not made arrangements with the bank to take up this draft, and therefore we are writing to ask that you call at the bank without delay and pay the paper or send us a remittance direct.

[1] Such sentences are commonly called *periodic*, while those that are so constructed that they could be broken at some point before the end and yet leave a completed meaning are called *loose sentences*.

3. We do not think you are aware of the fact that this balance is due, and so we bring it to your attention.

Note the variation shown when one of the members is changed to a subordinate clause or a phrase:

1. *As I have received no reply to my letter* and as the account is still open, I earnestly request that you take some action to effect a settlement.
2. *Since you have not made arrangements with the bank to take up this draft,* we ask that you call there without delay and pay the paper, or send us a remittance direct.
3. *Thinking perhaps that you are not aware of the fact that this balance is due,* we are bringing it to your attention.

Sometimes a phrase or even a single word can be made to take the place of a clause. For example, take the sentence, "In nine cases out of ten, an office manager will choose a stenographer *who has been well trained.*" Where variety is desired this can be stated by changing the clause to an adjective — thus: "In nine cases out of ten, an office manager will choose a *well-trained* stenographer."

RULE VII. *Emphasis may be secured by the use of short sentences.*

Too many short sentences, however, should not be used, but judiciously employed they are an effective means of securing emphasis.

RULE VIII. *Emphasis may be secured by the use of a dash.*

A true sale yields a threefold profit — to the manufacturer, to the seller, and to the buyer.

The following ad from the *Saturday Evening Post* shows how effective emphasis may be used in written composition. Note that Rules I, II, and III are observed throughout.

THE HEAT THAT MOLDED MOUNTAINS AWAITS YOUR COMMANDS

RULE VI. Not since the mighty upheavals of creation has the world known a flame so intensely hot as that produced by burning acetylene gas combined with oxygen.

RULE IV. No instrument has yet been devised capable of accurately measuring the terrific temperature of the ox-acetylene flame which is estimated at 6300° Fahrenheit.

RULE VIII. Thanks to modern industrial enterprise, this tremendous heat has been confined, harnessed, and converted into energy to serve American manufacturers — a worker of miracles controlled by a twist of the fingers!

RULE VII. Cracked and broken parts are remade. This is done in an incredibly short time and at surprisingly low cost. Worn surfaces are built up to their original dimensions. They are every bit as serviceable as when new.

RULE VIII. And the tiny oxweld cutting flame slices through iron and steel as a knife cuts butter — making a clean-edged cut in less time than it takes a man to saw through a corresponding thickness of wood.

RULE VII. The applications of oxwelding and cutting to both production and reclamation are apparently limitless. The process is being used, at a great saving of time and money, in thousands of plants.

RULES VI and VII. Oxweld Service Engineers, stationed in more than fifty centrally situated cities, are ready to demonstrate how oxwelding and cutting may be applied to *your* advantage in *your* plant. A word will bring one of these experts to your door.

RULE I. Write, wire, or telephone to the nearest address below for immediate attention.

RULE I. An illustrated booklet, "Oxweld Can Do It!" will be sent on request. It tells what oxweld is doing for others and what it can do for you. (By permission of the *Saturday Evening Post.*)

LESSON THIRTY-SIX

The Paragraph

Every writer or speaker who thinks clearly divides his subject into steps or divisions in each of which he expresses a definite idea. These divisions are, of course, clearly marked for the reader by indentation or by double spacing. A *paragraph* consists of a sentence or a group of sentences, bound by a close relation in idea, which develops a single subject or topic.

The purpose of the paragraph is to aid both the mind and the eye. The eye would tire of the unbroken page just as it would of the continuous sentence; and without paragraph divisions, the mind could not so easily see the topics of thought that were in the writer's mind.

Read carefully the following paragraph. Note that there is a single sentence in which the central idea is expressed and that it stands at the beginning. This is called the *topic sentence.* Sometimes it appears at the beginning of the paragraph, sometimes at the end.

> "Packard trucks are priced at a figure which permits the nation's greatest producer of high-grade commercial vehicles to manufacture a good truck. That price protects you against excessive after cost. It is your guarantee of continual and efficient truck operation. Its economy becomes more pronounced day after day and your truck is running smoothly and willingly long after the thirty per cent proposition has gone into the discard. Its earning power is almost unlimited, given average care and attention."

The first sentence in the foregoing is the *topic sentence* — that is, it tells what the topic of the entire paragraph is

to be. By shortening it we can give the paragraph the title: *The Price of Packard Trucks Permits the Producer to Manufacture a Good Truck.* This can be shortened into the title: *High Price Means Economy.* Of course the writer does not use the word *high.* From his viewpoint it is not high, but low, in the long run.

There is no detail in the entire paragraph that does not develop the topic expressed in the topic sentence.

Often your thoughts on a topic can be expressed in a single sentence. This is particularly true in business correspondence. The following is an example of what is called the **single-sentence paragraph.**

> "Packard service is regarded as the embodiment of all that should be — a thing to be counted on in a time of need — a vital necessity to be seriously considered when making a purchase of motor equipment."

Note carefully the topic sentence in the following paragraph, and observe how every sentence helps to develop the idea and is subordinate to it:

> "*There is nothing that can injure you much more at the very start of your sale than tardiness.* The customer feels that he has granted you a great favor in stating an exact time when he will be willing to see you. It is eminently fitting, therefore, that you do not waste any of his time — not one minute of it. It is said that Marshall Field made it a condition of his becoming a director of any corporation that all meetings were to begin on time. Nothing irritates a prompt, exact, businesslike man much more than to be compelled to wait. — *Read's Salesmanship.*

Note also the topic sentence of the following paragraph.

and the relation to it of every sentence in the series. Could a single word be omitted?

(1) *Topic*
(2) *Durability*
(3) *Scarcity*
(4) *Economy*
(5) *Economy*
(6) *Economy*

"(1) *When we say that Packard trucks are built, we mean all that that word implies.* (2) Statistics prove that built trucks outlive all others at least twice over. (3) You can count the "built" trucks on the fingers of one hand. (4) Economy is built into every piece of the Packard product. (5) This is what you buy. (6) It is what pays you dividends thereafter."

In the following paragraph the topic sentence comes at the close:

"The Packard truck has a strong and powerful motor. It has a strong rear axle. Its parts have all been designed, built, and tested to fill a given purpose. *In short, it is mechanically the most perfect truck on the market.*"

The **narrative paragraph**, which is used in telling of business transactions, current events, incidents, and stories, does not usually require a topic sentence. If the transaction or incident is told in a single paragraph, however, there should be a sentence at the beginning stating the time, place, characters, and circumstances. The details are then added in the time order — that is, in the order in which they occurred.

Note carefully the opening statement of the following:

"*One day last winter when the thermometer registered about twenty below a friend of mine looking out of the window at the hard going on the streets below, remarked:* 'My, I wish I had bought that Packard truck you were trying to sell me last summer. It would save a lot of money I am now paying for substitute hire. Now just look at that truck. Would you consider it

worth eighteen dollars a day? Its power is hardly sufficient to pull itself, let alone a load.' "

Of course in longer narratives where there are a series of related paragraphs, such an opening sentence could be expected only at the beginning of the first one.

Descriptive paragraphs also do not usually require a definite statement of the idea in a topic sentence. However, if the writer has had a single topic in mind, you can easily find it. For example, if he is describing an article he wishes to sell, he will try to create a definite impression. He will keep the customer constantly in mind and will appeal to desire. If the customer knows the article well, if it is a staple product, the writer will select only the details that will show superiority of material, low price, service, etc. Note the central idea of the following paragraph.

"The Packard Car commands an action that is prime and quiet, a control that is as velvet to the touch. In the owner's service, functions a mechanism so delicately and yet so ruggedly constructed, that though his ear scarcely can hear its movement, not his sternest usage can bully it into weakness."

THE SHORT PARAGRAPH IN BUSINESS

The short paragraph is popular in business correspondence. Turn to the sales letter, the adjustment letter — in fact, to any business letter — and you will find short pointed paragraphs. The purpose, of course, is to secure both emphasis and clearness. Quite often — and indeed it is almost the general practice — business men make each important fact stand out by placing it in a separate paragraph. Each point will thereby be made so obvious as not to be overlooked or misunderstood.

Frequently the opening and closing paragraphs consist of but a single sentence. When necessary to refer to the previous letter or to acknowledge an enclosure, this part should, as a rule, be made the first paragraph. In trying to be brief, however, remember to avoid worn-out phrases and undue formality. Strive to be concise, but original in expression. Note the following opening paragraphs:

"Your letter of August 20 regarding complaint on order C–273654 has been received."

"The catalog for which you asked in your letter of March 8 has been mailed and we believe you can find listed just the fixtures you want."

"We are pleased to enclose samples of letters asked for in your letter of August 21."

"Do you know that we are not selling motor trucks as we used to, but rather we are selling transportation?"

The concluding paragraph should be equally concise and especially free from worn-out expressions. Note the following examples:

"Will you kindly take this matter up with your manager so that it will eliminate our taking any such action on your future shipments?"

"We hope this has caused you no inconvenience."

"If you find the goods satisfactory — and I think you will — you may remit for them in July."

"Don't you want to go into the facts and figures with a representative of our company? It will mean dollars in your pocket. When shall we have him call?"

In order to paragraph correctly, the writer must formulate a plan for his article or letter and limit each paragraph to one special or particular part of that outline.

When you study letter writing, you will learn what a number of these plans are. For example, you will learn that in the sales letter one plan is to follow these steps: *attention, interest, desire, action;* another, *attention, interest, proof, persuasion, inducement,* and *action;* another, *attention, explanation, proof, persuasion;* another, *attention, interest, persuasion;* and yet another, *attention, interest, persuasion, inducement,* etc. All these plans conform to the principles on which successful selling is based. We have nothing to do with that here except as it applies to paragraphing. It is sufficient at this time to know that there must be a scientific order of topics, and that *each topic* must have a separate paragraph.

The following will show a business letter properly paragraphed:

"If a man should suddenly step into your office and say, 'Mr. Brown, I will increase the efficiency of your
Attention pick-up and delivery system twofold today, tomorrow, and every day thereafter, at a cost no greater than you are now paying, and possibly less,' what would you say?

"Hundreds of firms have had that same assertion put
Explanation to them in the last few years, and they have done what you would do — grasped the opportunity. Packard trucks have come to their rescue. They are proving the absolute truth of the statement.

"Their problems have not differed greatly from yours, and they have found it highly profitable to Packardise their business. They know that under the old system
Proof of horse and wagon, or unreliable truck deliveries, they were constantly harassed with breakdowns just when

they were most costly and with innumerable petty worries that add to the burden of life.

"Packards have revolutionized this. *They stand up.*

Persuasion They represent an asset which other buyers could not do without.

"Can you?"

LESSON THIRTY-SEVEN

Unity of the Paragraph

Unity of the paragraph is as important as unity of the sentence. In the foregoing lesson you learned that a paragraph contains a central idea, often summed up in a statement called the topic sentence, and a number of details that help to develop the idea. When the details are properly arranged to support the main idea, there is produced that singleness of effect that is called unity.

In order to assist in securing unity, you should observe certain principles which will be stated and illustrated.

Rule I. *A paragraph should present but one central idea.*

Note that the following selection taken from a sales letter contains two main ideas:

> "*Any piece of machinery is only as strong as its weakest part.* If a truck has a good rear axle, a strong frame, but an underpowered engine, you will surely have trouble. So it is with any part of it. *A truck to be right must be built to serve a given purpose,* each little piece properly designed and manufactured to fit with its component parts, and the whole considered from the angle of a single unit. The result becomes mechanical perfection in so far as human ingenuity can make it so."

In order to secure unity, divide the passage into two paragraphs as follows:

> "*Any piece of machinery is only as strong as its weakest part.* If a truck has a good rear axle, a strong frame, but an underpowered engine, you will surely have trouble. So it is with every part of it.
>
> "*A truck to be right must be built to serve a given purpose,* each little piece properly designed and manufactured to fit with its

component parts, and the whole considered from the angle of a single unit. The result becomes mechanical perfection in so far as human ingenuity can make it so."

If a paragraph possesses unity, its central idea *can* be expressed in a topic sentence. If it requires more than one such statement to express the topic, there should be more than one division.

RULE II. *Minor details that do not help to develop the central idea should be excluded.*

In narration select the essential details and state them in the order of occurrence. Do not turn aside to mention something that has nothing to do with your story. If you feel that you should begin a statement with " By the way," you had better omit the sentence altogether.

If you are describing an unfamiliar article or something entirely new, you should give full details. If the customer knows the article well, however, you will not need to give many details.

Too many details destroy the singleness of effect and purpose which gives unity. The following example shows a description of men's suits which contains unnecessary details:

"We are putting on sale more than a thousand suits of men's clothes. They include all the soft wool materials — blue serge, velour-finished cassimeres, fine-twill flannels, etc. The colors are black, blue, gray, and brown. Many of the suits have shades of green in them. Some of them have small stripes and checks, others being plain. The styles are correct and almost every design may be found. The coats include double-breasted ones and pinch-backs. There are also a great number of sack coats. The collars fit nicely and there are no wrinkles across the

shoulders. All trimmings and linings are of the finest satin and silk. You will like these suits if you see them. They would sell for seventy-five dollars if made to measure."

Since the customer is familiar with men's suits, minute details are unnecessary. Note the improvement when restated:

"We offer more than a thousand men's suits. All the beautiful soft wool materials of rich color and design that were so scarce a year ago are here in abundance. You will find correct styles, single and double breasted, snappy lines that make you appear well dressed, smart fitting collars, and excellent trimmings and linings. These suits would sell for seventy-five dollars each if made to measure."

RULE III. *Determine definitely a single point of view and hold to it throughout the paragraph.*

In business writing, select the point of view of the reader and hold to it. At least you should not change it without giving definite notice. Be careful not to confuse your own interests with his, for you will find a natural tendency to change from the *you-point of view* to the *I-point of view.*

Moreover, you should keep in mind the class of customers to whom you are writing. And this is true whether of description, explanation, or argument. If you were selling motor trucks, for example, you would hardly write the same description and explanation to the farmer as to the retail merchant, nor would you use the same argument.

Note the following example written from the point of view of the farmer:

"In the busy season the farmer finds the motor truck a distinct advantage. Other conveyances are too slow or fail en-

tirely. But the truck can be depended upon to get perishable goods quickly to market and to bring in supplies."

Compare the foregoing with this paragraph written to the retail merchant:

"In cold and stormy weather customers appreciate delivery service more than ever. They find it a distinct advantage to deal with a house that brings goods to their very door and saves them the discomforts of shopping."

The *you-point of view* and the *I-point of view* must never be mixed in the same paragraph. The style of the paragraph also must consistently recognize the general character, occupation, education, or other important facts about the receiver of the letter, and not change from one type to another.

LESSON THIRTY-EIGHT

Clearness in the Paragraph

Often through lack of definite planning, careless writers fail to arrange their sentences in a natural and logical order. This makes the meaning of the paragraph difficult to determine. The following is an example of this error:

> "You know our invariable policy, 'If anything is not right, we make it right.' Surely the goods were perfectly satisfactory, or we should have heard from you before this. And that policy really means that our goods are right in the first place."

Note the gain in clearness when the sentences are arranged in the proper order:

> "Surely the goods were perfectly satisfactory, or we should have heard from you before this time. You know our invariable policy, 'If anything is not right, we make it right.' And that policy really means that our goods are right in the first place."

Careless writers, in passing from one sentence to another, are also likely to change unnecessarily from one subject to another — thus:

> 'A successful business man must study the market. You must be able to determine when prices of commodities are likely to rise or fall."

Of course, the correct form is as follows:

> "A successful business man must study the market. He must be able to determine when prices of commodities are likely to rise or fall."

Again, careless writers often fail to use connecting words and phrases. They forget that in brief writing, such as business letters, there are in many cases wide gaps between

ideas where connectives like *however*, *therefore*, *consequently*, etc. would make the meaning clearer. Note the lack of connectives in the following paragraph:

> "On January 4 a telegram came from Mr. Smith concerning some tires that had been returned. I went to the factory. I examined them carefully. I refused to accept them. They had been shipped according to contract."

But compare it with the same rewritten with the necessary connectives supplied:

> "On January 4 a telegram came from Mr. Smith concerning some tires that had been returned. I *therefore* went to the factory *and* examined them carefully. They were in good condition, *but* I did not accept their return because they had been shipped according to contract."

Clearness in the paragraph requires that the foregoing errors be carefully avoided. The following rules should therefore be observed:

RULE I. *The sentences should be arranged in natural and logical order.*

Clear and logical thinking will do more than anything else to insure the proper arrangement of ideas. Before beginning to write, work out a definite plan for developing the topic. There are a few plans that experienced writers have approved. The more important ones follow:

The Narrative Order. In telling about a business transaction, the narrative order, of course, should be followed, as you would follow it in a story. This means nothing more than setting forth details in the time order — thus:

> "February 4 I was in your factory and ordered a shipment of tires. You will remember that you promised to deliver them

in ten days. Today I received only twenty-four of them. It is now February 16 and there are still twenty-six to be delivered. You have, therefore, not lived up to your contract."

The Descriptive Order. In describing an article offered for sale or in picturing a person or place, you follow the so-called *descriptive order* — that is, you mention the things together that stand or belong near each other in space. Naturally you should not skip about or change your point of view. First give a general impression of the object and follow this with the most necessary details — thus:

"Our sedan is a comfortable, roomy, six-passenger car with the rear seat as wide as can possibly be contrived in a body which is hung extremely low and thus is between the rear wheels rather than over them. The front seat is not divided. Two large, comfortable, well-upholstered folding seats drop into a recess back of the front seats. The body is unusually strong; the frame is constructed principally of ash with very heavy door and corner posts and will stand the shock and strain incident to driving over rough roads. Finally, the simple lines give an air of elegance without any suggestion of a 'boxy' appearance."

The Argument Order. Although the descriptive order is followed largely in picturing articles in sales letters and advertisements, business is concerned chiefly with explanation and argument. In this case the order of presentation may be called the *argument order*. Here are several plans of development.

1. *Statement and Illustration.* You may begin with a topic sentence stating a general truth and then follow it with a concrete example, or illustration — thus:

"*Progressive companies are constantly endeavoring to increase their business.* There's a bank here in Denver — not much

larger than yours — that secured over a thousand new depositors in December. They secured them, mind you, by giving away one of our handsome self-filling fountain pens to every person opening an account. You can do the same. Try it now."

2. *Statement and Figure of Speech.* You may introduce a comparison with good effect, if not too long — thus:

"*A speedometer, too, is important.* It is really the driver's time-table — indispensable to motor travel."

3. *Statement and Contrast.* Perhaps a contrast may serve equally well to develop your general statement:

"*Suburban property is in far greater demand than before the days of automobile transportation.* Formerly the advantages of life outside the cities were limited to the efficiency of railway connections. Now the automobile owner is independent of every other conveyance. The inconvenience of family shopping and getting about generally no longer exists — in any season."

4. *Effect and Cause.* Again, in your topic sentence you may state an effect. In this case you will proceed by mentioning the causes — thus:

"*You would probably, however, have had very much the same difficulties with any other firm to whom you had given the work.* As you may have noticed by the papers, practically all the printing establishments in the city have been tied up for the past month with the general printers' strike. We were, therefore, compelled temporarily to hire unskilled men, who were unable to do the work so rapidly or so well as our own employees." — The B. F. Goodrich Rubber Co.

5. *General Statement and Detail.* In all of the foregoing examples the paragraph begins with a topic sentence or general truth. Another plan of development, however, is

the direct opposite of this. In following this you begin with a statement of details or particulars and lead up to a general statement or conclusion — thus:

> "Immense numbers of firms are now using Packard equipment profitably. New orders are constantly coming in from old and new customers, large and small, who have found that Packards are the only logical solution to a business similar to yours. There are more than twenty-six thousand Packards giving day in and day out service in every line of endeavor both at home and abroad. *In short, there is every indication that the Packard truck has won a place for itself.*"

6. *Cause and Effect.* You may begin by stating causes and end by giving the effect — thus:

> "When we say that Packard trucks are built, we mean all that that word implies. Statistics prove that built trucks outlive all others at least twice over. You can count the 'built' trucks on the fingers of one hand. Economy is built into every piece of the Packard product. This economy is what you buy. *It is what pays you dividends.*"

Still another plan of developing frequently found in sales letters requires that the facts be arranged in the order of importance, the most important standing at the last. This arrangement makes a sort of climax and therefore adds emphasis. Note the following example:

> "Packard trucks are designed and built to fill a given purpose. They are made of the best and most durable materials. Every part has been tested and tried. *In short, they are built right, from radiator to rear bumper.*"

RULE II. *There should be no unnecessary changes of the time expressed by the verbs.*

Note carefully the error in the following:

"Then the customer *comes* into the House and *orders* goods for his spring trade. After this he *spends* an hour with us in the office and afterwards *went* out for an automobile ride."

But this is the way it should have been written:

"Then the customer *came* into the House and *ordered* goods for his spring trade. After that he *spent* an hour with us in the office and finally *went* out for an automobile ride."

RULE III. *There should be no unnecessary changes of subject.*

The following paragraph illustrates this error:

"A *salesman* should thoroughly understand the goods he wishes to sell. *You* should know their good qualities and be able to describe them. *Nobody* can make his customer want the article unless *you* can show its good points."

But note the gain in clearness when properly rewritten:

"A *salesman* should understand thoroughly the goods he wishes to sell. *He* should know their good qualities and be able to describe them. *He* could not make his customer want the article unless *he* could show its good points."

RULE IV. *Whenever it is necessary to make the relation between ideas clearer, connecting words and phrases should be used.*

These connectives fall into well-defined groups. The first, including *and, also, too, moreover, in addition to*, etc., is used when moving along in the same line of thought. The second, including *but, still, yet, however, nevertheless, in spite of*, etc., is used when passing to an idea opposed to what has been mentioned. The third, including *there-*

fore, *then*, *so*, *consequently*, *hence*, etc., is used when drawing a conclusion. With the exception of the words *and* and *but*, the connectives *however*, *therefore*, and *yet* are most frequently used and most serviceable.

Besides these connectives, *thus* and *that* are frequently used. Sometimes also it is advisable to use *first* (not *firstly*), *second*, *third*, etc.; and when the enumeration is long, it is better to make a paragraph for each step, beginning with these words.

The following paragraph shows connecting words and phrases correctly used. After you have studied it carefully, read it again, omitting the connectives, and note the result:

"You can see, *therefore*, that we labored under great difficulties in turning out your work. *In addition to* this difficulty, the mills have discontinued making paper of the grade you ordered. In order not to increase the delay, we took the liberty of substituting in place of it a more expensive grade. No doubt the quality will partly compensate you for the extra postal bills; *however*, if you will send us a statement, showing the extra charge, we shall be glad to deduct that from the face of the bill. We shall *also* be glad to allow you a discount for any imperfect copies which you may return to us."

LESSON THIRTY–NINE

Emphasis in the Paragraph

It is not enough that the paragraph should possess unity and coherence — it must also possess *emphasis.* Your problem is not merely to reveal the most important idea, or point, in the paragraph, but also to do it forcefully. Should you succeed, you will compel the reader to remember the thoughts you consider most important, and thus you will influence his beliefs or move him to action.

Effective writers have learned that emphasis can be secured best by the use of certain devices. Chief among these are the following:

1. Place important statements first or last in the paragraph.
2. Give the most important topic the greatest space.
3. Present most important ideas in specific language and attractive phraseology.
4. Stress important statements through certain typographical devices, such as setting the expression in full capitals, underlining, tabulating, or enlarging space between letters.

These seem indeed simple, but they can be more easily understood when stated in the form of rules and carefully explained and illustrated.

Rule I. *Place important statements at the beginning or end of the paragraph.*

The most emphatic positions are at the beginning and the end of the paragraph. Emphasis may, therefore, be

secured by making a good beginning. This may be done by placing the topic sentence first or by beginning with a statement or question that has a strong personal appeal.

Note the emphasis gained by beginning the following paragraph with a topic sentence:

> "*Packard trucks are built to give you a service that will preserve our reputation.* Our guarantee specifically calls for regular monthly inspection free of cost to you for one year from date of purchase. We watch over that truck. We have a vital interest in it, even though it has passed into other hands; for it is, nevertheless, one of the Packard family and as such must maintain the Packard reputation."

In the next example, the question makes an equally effective beginning:

> "*Do you know that a large percentage of Packard owners started with only enough money to make an initial payment on their first truck?* Today they are fleet owners, operating their original purchase together with several others which that first truck has helped to pay for."

Note also the gain by tabulation in the following:

> "Do you know that the three things necessary for proper freight transportation by motor truck are —
> *The right truck,*
> *Proper installation of the right size,*
> *Proper supervision and maintenance?*"

An attractive, original way of saying the first sentence easily secures emphasis — thus:

> "*No, sir! Trucks will* NOT *eat you up, if you buy the right kind and have work for them to do.*"

Careful writers often close the paragraph with the most important statement. This may be the topic sentence or a statement summing up what has been set forth. Again, it may be the most important one of a series of thoughts arranged in the order of climax. To place it in the middle of the paragraph would establish an anticlimax — a movement from the most important thought to the weakest. This would result in a gradual weakening of expression and in a loss of interest. The reader quite naturally concludes that the speaker or writer has no more of real value to offer.

Observe the following example in which emphasis is secured by placing the topic sentence last:

> "Goodrich Silvertown Cords cut your gasoline bills and relieve your motor. They coast farther and climb hills more easily. They give riding comfort and add to the good looks of your car. *In short, they fill every requirement of the exacting motorist.*"

A similar emphasis is secured by arranging the sentence in the order of climax. Here is an interesting example:

> "You see with a Packard truck you are relieved of the constant anxiety attached to mediocre equipment. You can afford to smile at the other fellow's mishaps while your own sturdy Packard goes merrily along its way, pursuing the duties you lay out for it. Forethought has made you master of the situation. There are no little annoyances — no serious breakdowns — no tremendous repair bills. The Packard truck has met every requirement. No task is too hard — nothing too difficult."

RULE II. *Express important ideas in specific language and attractive phraseology.*

Vague general terms do not give a definite picture of a thing or convey accurate information. Such expressions as "without an equal," "the best in the world," "a remarkable value," "excellent quality for the price," etc., are not convincing. Get down to particulars about the thing you are describing or the proposition you are explaining. For example, if you are selling goods, give details of at least one of the superior features of your merchandise.

Suppose the Goodrich Rubber Company had described their cord tires in general terms. It might have sounded like this:

> "Goodrich Cord tires are without doubt the most popular in the country. A large number of people use them on account of their many good qualities."

But they actually said:

> "Some time just notice how many cars are equipped with Goodrich Silvertown Cord tires. It's really surprising to know how popular they are. And there's a reason. It's because they give such long, carefree service that they are the choice of motorists."

Express your ideas in attractive language. Make an effort to be original. Think of the usual way of saying a thing, then tell it differently. Note the following examples written in the same old way:

> "Although the initial cost of our truck is more, many corporations buy of us. If they get a satisfactory return for what they spend, any person can do the same."

Compare with this:

> "No, sir! The Packard truck is not a corporation truck alone. Corporations, no matter how wealthy, are not given to

buying anything unless they secure adequate return for all they expend. Remember — the Packard truck is every man's truck."

A dealer in men's clothing recently issued an ad containing this paragraph which is couched in vague general terms:

"We have positively the best men's suits on the market. They are all wool and hand-tailored. There are many models."

This is all true enough, but it is not convincing. Here is what it should be:

"If you demand real style, here is the suit for you. Our suits are made of all-wool materials, in the season's popular patterns and colorings. We have snappy up-to-the-minute styles, in both single-breasted and double-breasted models, and every suit is hand-tailored to the very last stitch. We have models ranging from the most extreme to the most conservative. If you want to look your best at Easter and thereafter, select your suit from this choice group."

The foregoing examples will doubtless be sufficient to show that it is not enough merely to state facts in a vague sort of way. Ideas that are worth expressing at all should be stated in specific and attractive language.

RULE III. *In each paragraph give space to your ideas in proportion to their importance.*

The following example shows a violation of this rule:

"I left Chicago on the midnight train, day before yesterday, and after changing cars at Indianapolis in the morning, I went to Cincinnati, where I arrived the following noon just in time to find that you had gone from the office for the day, as I learned that you often are, and could not be located either by me or by any of our clients no matter how important the business. Under the circumstances, I find it necessary to ask for your resignation."

But note the gain in emphasis when the paragraph is revised to give space to ideas in proportion to their importance:

> "I arrived in Cincinnati yesterday noon, after a hard day's travel, and found that you were gone from the office for the day and could not be located either by me or any of our clients, no matter how important the business. I learned that you often do this — a thing that I cannot even begin to understand; for if an important client should need you at such times and be unable to find you, we should probably lose his business altogether. I have little doubt that we have lost considerable business in this way. Under the circumstances, I find it necessary to ask you for your resignation."

You will observe that in the original, the writer used most of his space in describing his own hard trip — which was important to him, but not the important idea of his paragraph. In the revised paragraph, this is abbreviated and the proper proportion of space is given to the central idea.

RULE IV. *Emphasis may be secured through the use of certain typographical means of display.*

These include the use of capitals, underlining, tabulating, unusual spacing, and the use of the dash. They are used very frequently in sales letters and advertisements, but should be employed sparingly elsewhere.

LESSON FORTY

The Whole Composition

The whole composition usually consists of a series of related paragraphs, each contributing toward the development of a single subject. In the business world the form of composition generally required is the letter.

Throughout this book the language and subject-matter of business correspondence has been used. Letter writing as such, however, is to be studied in the letter-writing text for which this is the base.

A word concerning the importance of this study will, therefore, be instructive. By almost every concern not purely local, business is carried on chiefly by correspondence, and employers are ever alert to find those who can write effective letters — *letters that win.* And what is more, they are willing to pay good salaries. Recently, a large wholesale company granted the members of its adjustment and collection departments very substantial increases in pay at a time when it was lowering the salaries of other employees. This clearly indicates that a knowledge of letter writing insures a better salary.

If you master the science of letter writing, not only will you receive a higher salary, but also you will have better opportunities for advancement. You will be promoted to a position of confidence and responsibility, where you will have an opportunity to learn the "inside" of a business. This is, indeed, one of the highest rewards.

Moreover, you will find a knowledge of letter writing valuable in any line of work. It is impossible to conceive

of any business where there is not at least some need of correspondence; and if letters are to be written at all, they should be written effectively.

The scientific study of letter writing is not only possible but in these days absolutely necessary. Take, for example, the sales letter. Millions of dollars' worth of goods are sold each year by this means alone. It is therefore important that such letters should be written according to a plan. Salesmanship students have worked out a series of steps — audience, attention, interest, desire, and action — and every one of these should be provided for in the sales talk. Likewise they should be provided for in the sales letter.

As far as possible in the letter-writing text, the project method will be used. You will be assigned a business and directed, as its correspondent, to write the various types of letters that naturally arise in different situations. This will not only be interesting but serve to increase your knowledge of business as well.

We have endeavored, in this text on business English, to lay a proper foundation for the study of letter writing; and will conclude with a discussion of the principles of unity, clearness, and emphasis. We have already applied them to the word, the sentence, and the paragraph. They will now be so treated as to apply to the *complete composition* whether letter, circular, report, or advertisement.

Unity. Unity in the whole composition requires that there should be only one central idea. Everything that does not help to develop this should, therefore, be rigidly excluded.

On the other hand, important details must not be omitted. Thousands of order letters have to be returned every day for further particulars — such as, size, catalog numbers, etc.

To secure unity, always state clearly the central idea — thus:

1. The Packard truck will save you money on your delivery service.
2. There was a mistake in my order of men's shoes.
3. The after expense of the Packard truck is not so great as that of a cheaper one.
4. A business education is valuable in many ways.

To aid further in securing unity, you should prepare an outline. Making up the outline, of course, presupposes that you have secured the materials for writing — that is, ideas from experience, books, your own thoughts on the subject, etc. Having the materials assembled, arrange your topics logically, excluding entirely any that do not belong to the central idea.

Suppose, for example, that a salesman of the Packard Motor Company wishes to prepare a sales argument for letter, circular, or advertisement, having the following central idea: *The after expense of a Packard truck is much less than that of a cheaper one.* He will make a list of points that he believes will develop the idea — thus:

1. The right kind of truck will not be expensive.
2. The first cost is the least consideration.
3. A truck will increase the efficiency of your pick-up and delivery service twofold.
4. Buying a good truck is like making a safe investment.
5. Our price is high enough to enable us to produce a good truck.

6. A Packard gives efficient service.
7. You should go over the figures with our representatives.

But after listing his points he will go over them carefully to see whether there are any that should be omitted. A second thought will reveal the fact that the third topic does not belong to the central idea and that the sixth is too general. He will, therefore, revise his outline, leaving them out entirely — thus:

The after expense of a Packard truck is much less than that of a cheaper one.

1. The right kind of truck will not be expensive.
2. The first cost is the least consideration.
3. Buying a good truck is like making a safe investment.
4. Our price is high enough to enable us to produce a good truck.
5. You should go over the figures with our representative.

And here is how the finished composition will actually look. Note the complete unity of the work as a whole:

"No, sir! Trucks will NOT eat you up, if you buy the right kind of trucks and have work for them to do.

"First cost is really your least consideration. It is the after expense that must be closely scrutinized before you pass final judgment.

"If it came to a question of bonds, which would you choose — a U. S. Liberty 4¼ with the resources of Uncle Sam back of it, or an oil stock guaranteed to pay 30% with nothing back of it but the guarantee?

"One is founded on the stability of a nation. You know its value. The other is the 100-to-1 shot. One represents a known quantity; the other is the 'x' in your equation.

"Packard trucks are priced at a figure which permits the nation's greatest producer of high-grade commercial vehicles to

manufacture a GOOD TRUCK. That price protects you against excessive after cost. It is your guarantee of continual and efficient truck operation. Its economy becomes more pronounced day after day. Your truck is running smoothly and willingly long after the 30% proposition has gone into the discard. Its earning power is almost unlimited, if it is given average care and attention.

"Don't you want to go into the facts and figures with a representative of our company? It will mean dollars in your pocket. When shall we have him call?"

Clearness. Much that has already been said of clearness in the paragraph applies equally to the entire composition. The parts should follow one another in logical order, and the relation of ideas should be made clear by the use of connecting words and phrases.

In narrative compositions, such as a complaint letter or a report of a business meeting, the problem of arrangement is simple. Merely follow the time order. Also in descriptive work, such as circulars or booklets picturing articles for sale, you have only to follow the so-called space order — that is, you present your details in the order in which they occur in space. Explanations of processes, giving directions, etc., follow the time order, while others begin with a statement of causes and end with the effect.

However, in most business writing the order of development is determined largely from the point of view of the customer. Remember that his situation, his needs, his moods, and even his hobbies must be considered. All letters should at least begin with his point of view — a reference to the previous letter and its content. Then if desirable, as in the case of an adjustment letter, you may

conclude by bringing the customer around to your own point of view. But the sales letter should be written wholly from the point of view of the customer.

As an aid to securing clearness, nothing else is quite so helpful as making an outline. First, state clearly your central idea and then make a list of subordinate points. Then rearrange your outline, so that the parts will be in the correct order.

Suppose, for example, a representative of the Packard Motor Company wishes to prepare an ad for the *Saturday Evening Post*, having the following central idea: *The traffic superintendent who recommends a Packard truck to his chief can always justify his choice.* His first outline would appear somewhat like this:

The traffic superintendent who recommends a Packard truck to his chief can always justify his choice.

1. The record made by the heavy-duty Packard of The Stearns Lime and Cement Company is a typical example of the Packard's capacity.
2. The operating records will prove the soundness of his judgment.
3. The Packard truck has the benefit of country-wide service facilities.
4. Only in another Packard can be found equal power and economy.
5. The Packard's ability measured by tons carried, miles traveled, and years of working life is the final standard of truck performance.

Looking at the outline further, he will discover that his points need to be rearranged. He will probably make his most general statements stand first and follow these with

the more specific points about the truck's ability to do hauling. Then, logically, he will introduce the particular example of the Packard's capacity as shown by the heavy-duty truck of The Stearns Lime and Cement Company. The outline will then appear as follows:

The traffic superintendent who recommends a Packard truck to his chief can always justify his choice.

1. The operating records will prove the soundness of his judgment.
2. The Packard's ability measured by tons carried, miles traveled, and years of working life is the final standard of truck performance.
3. Only in another Packard can be found equal power and economy.
4. The record made by the heavy-duty Packard of The Stearns Lime and Cement Company is a typical example of the Packard's capacity.
5. The Packard truck has the advantage of country-wide service facilities.

And this is the finished composition. Note how *clear* and *convincing* it is:

"*The traffic superintendent who recommends a Packard truck to his chief can always justify his choice.* In its first day of service, or at the end of ten years, the operating records of the Packard will prove the soundness of his judgment.

"Measured by tons carried, miles traveled, or years of working life, the Packard's ability to do better hauling at lower cost is the final standard of truck performance.

"Only in another Packard can be found equal power and economy, for Packard efficiency is the product of tested design, selected materials, expert manufacture, and the Packard method of rating the truck to its work.

"A typical example of the Packard's capacity is furnished by The Stearns Lime and Cement Company of Chicago, whose heavy-duty Packard in a single year covered more than 36 miles a day for 301 working days, carrying an average load of 7.7 tons, a total of 10,836 miles and 14,800 tons.

"In delivering such performances through year after year, every Packard truck has the benefit of country-wide service facilities established to keep it fit and in working trim."

Emphasis. Emphasis in the composition as a whole depends upon the position of ideas and the amount of space devoted to them. Since most business writing is made as brief as possible, you will not need to give the question of the amount of space much consideration. The position of ideas in the composition is, however, of the greatest importance. As in the case of the paragraph, the beginning and the end are the places of greatest emphasis.

Place an important point at the beginning to attract attention. The writers of sales letters use this device constantly, and to add to the emphasis, they frequently type such sentences, or parts of them in full capitals. Sometimes a question makes quite the most effective opening — thus:

"What has kept you from placing your order for a PACKARD TRUCK?"

The most emphatic position in the entire composition is at the end. Place your most important point last, therefore, and it will be remembered more easily. Often such statements, or parts of them, are typed in full capi-

tals. This is particularly true of sales letters. The following is an example of this device for securing emphasis:

> "Remember — THE PACKARD TRUCK IS EVERY MAN'S TRUCK. When are you going to have yours?"

The following example shows how effectively emphasis may be secured by placing important statements at the beginning and the end. Note that the opening sentence wins attention by giving an important proof, and the last one incites the reader to action:

> "*Our government bought on 'record of past performance' when they placed their order for* 4800 *Packard trucks at one time.* The Expeditionary force into Mexico proved their fitness for any task, and when we entered the World War, Packards received the first call.
>
> "You see that with a Packard truck you are relieved of the constant anxiety attached to mediocre equipment. You can afford to smile at the other fellow's mishaps while your own sturdy Packard goes merrily along its way, pursuing the duties you lay out for it. Forethought has made you master of the situation. No task is too hard — nothing too difficult. It has power to spare and style that causes your prestige to go up a notch.
>
> "It is surprising how much of the mechanism requires a great deal of 'letting alone.' Your driver can, therefore, save time. He will be worth more to you on a Packard truck, for he takes pride in the thoroughbred that is his to handle. He takes pleasure in seeing how much work he can get out of it, and the efficiency of both is increased twofold.
>
> "I have given some thought to your trucking problem. To my mind a (size) Packard will serve you admirably. It is a buy you cannot well afford to be without. An order placed now should get you this model for immediate delivery. You

will marvel at its performance and wonder how you managed before you got it.

"Just telephone — and I will be right over with a contract."

You have now studied the word, the sentence, the paragraph and the whole composition, and you have no doubt learned to place a new value on correct English usage both in oral and in written speech. You have also learned that the sentence, paragraph, and composition must not only be correct in language but also possess unity, clearness, and emphasis. Having mastered these essential principles, you should be ready for the important study of letter writing.

But before you begin Correspondence test yourself on the common errors of speech as listed on the succeeding pages. Check any that you may be in the habit of making and for their elimination follow exactly the instructions given for the daily drill. Now that you are familiar with the rules governing these cases you should make a determined effort to speak correctly.

GOOD USAGE DRILLS

The ability to use correct English in speaking and writing is largely a matter of habit.

The following is a list of the most common errors of speech. It contains those most frequently heard in business offices and found in business letters. Nearly all of them have been fully treated in the foregoing lessons; a very few have not.

If you make any of these errors, either habitually or occasionally, you can in a month make great progress toward the correction of them — if indeed you can not eliminate them entirely — by using the following daily drill method:

1. Examine the list carefully, checking the errors you make.

2. Divide the errors you have checked into groups of six.

3. Study one group each day. Repeat each correct expression aloud, thoughtfully, and in a clear voice, ten times, and write it once, at noon, at night just before retiring, and immediately upon arising in the morning. Do not fail either to write the expressions or to pronounce them. Thus your hand and voice will aid your memory and help you to overcome the effects of your former bad habit.

You can do this, slowly and thoughtfully, in nine minutes a day — three minutes at noon, three at night, and three in the morning. It is a mental exercise that will pay you rich dividends for life. If you are in the habit of making half of the errors here listed you will finish these drills

in a little more than two weeks. If you will go through your entire list two or three times you will be amazed at the result.

Page	*Always say:*	*Do not say:*
24	It is *I*	It is *me*
24	It is *we*	It is *us*
24	It is *he*	It is *him*
24	It is *they*	It is *them*
24	Was it *she?*	Was it *her?*
24	Is it *I whom* you want?	Is it *me who* you want?
24	If it had been *they*	If it had been *them*
24	It is *we* who subscribed	It is *us* who subscribed
24	He thought it was *I*	He thought it was *me*
25	He thought it to be *me*	He thought it to be *I*
25	I know it to be *them*	I know it to be *they*
24	It being *he,* I felt safe	It being *him,* I felt safe
24	If I had been *he*	If I had been *him*
21	Louis is stronger than *he*	Louis is stronger than *him*
19	*They* and *we* made a bargain	*We* and *them* made a bargain
19, 21	*He* and his partner were alone	*Him* and his partner were alone
19	*We* men must work	*Us* men must work
19	Dick and *I* worked together	Dick and *me* worked together
19	*He* and *I* made a bargain	*I* and *him* made a bargain
19	*He* and *I* went together	*Me* and *him* went together
24, 77	Who is the better, Tom or *I?*	Who is the better, Tom or *me?*
19	letters for William and *me*	letters for William and *I*
20	Do this for Taylor and *me*	Do this for Taylor and *I*
20	between you and *me*	between you and *I*
19	All enjoyed it but *him*	All enjoyed it but *he*
21	like you and *me*	like you and *I*

Page	*Always say:*	*Do not say:*
20	He employed Dick and *me*	He employed Dick and *I* (or me and Dick)
20	They liked Smith and *him*	They liked Smith and *he*
20	He asked Smith and *me*	He asked Smith and *I*
13	I heard of *his* going	I heard of *him* going
13	He prevented *their* coming	He prevented *them* coming
23	*Jim* said	*Jim he* said
23	*Mother* called	*Mother she* called
23	The *mail* is gone	The *mail it's* gone
20	John and *I* are writing	John and *myself* are writing
27	The manager *himself* did it	The manager *hisself* did it
27	The workmen injured *themselves*	The workmen injured *theirselves*
28	Every worker must do *his* duty	Every worker must do *their* duty
28	Each man has *his* task	Each man has *their* task
28	Everybody cashed *his* check	Everbody cashed *their* check
28	Everyone has *his* faults	Everyone has *their* faults
28	If anyone thinks *he* can	If anyone thinks *they* can
28	Each of the clerks *has his* blotters	Each of the clerks *have their* blotters
28	Everyone who came *is* glad	Everyone who came *are* glad
29	The plumbers, as well as their boss, knew *their* work	The plumbers, as well as their boss, knew *his* work
65	*those* houses	*them* houses
65	*those* letters in the box	*them* letters in the box
100	*there were* six of them	*they was* six of them *there*
31	*Whom* do you want?	*Who* do you want?
31	the man *whom* you mentioned	the man *who* you mentioned
31	a stenographer *whom* you will like	a stenographer *who* you will like

Page	*Always say:*	*Do not say:*
31	the man *whom* we met	the man *who* we met
90, 31	*For whom* did you buy the wheat?	*Who* did you buy the wheat *for?*
31	*For whom* do you solicit?	*Who* do you solicit *for?*
31	*Who* did you say the buyer was?	*Whom* did you say the buyer was?
32	*Who* do you suppose did it?	*Whom* do you suppose did it?
24, 31	I did not know *who* it could be	I did not know *whom* it could be
51	neither Frank *nor* I	neither Frank *or* I
52	I could not write *or* spell	I could not write *nor* spell
70	You *never* can tell	You *can't never* tell
70	We *didn't* do *any* work We *did no* work	We *didn't* do no work
51	We *didn't* see Mary *or* Lucy We *saw neither* Mary *nor* Lucy	We *didn't* see Mary *nor* Lucy
70	Henry told *no one*	Henry *never* told *no one*
70, 152	I *don't* think I *can*	I *can't,* I *don't* think
70	I *can hardly* study	I *can't hardly* study
70, 18	Jones *has scarcely* a dollar	Jones *hasn't scarcely* a dollar
70	I *can't* go *anywhere* I *can* go *nowhere*	I *can't* go *nowhere*
70	I bought *none* I *didn't* buy *any*	I *never* bought *none*
50	*May* I go now?	*Can* I go now?
50	*May* I come in?	*Can* I come in?
50	*May* I interrupt you?	*Can* I interrupt you?
48	We *shall* be pleased	We *will* be pleased
48	I *shall* be glad to answer you	I *will* be glad to answer you

Page	*Always say:*	*Do not say:*
48	*Shall* Jones and *I* quit work?	*Will* Jones and *me* quit work?
48	You *will* be surprised	You *shall* be surprised
48	I *will* keep my word	I *shall* keep my word
48	We *shall* welcome orders	We *will* welcome orders
48	*Shall* we hear from you?	*Will* we hear from you?
48	You *shall* go (determination)	You *will* go (determination)
48	You *will* go (futurity)	You *shall* go (futurity)
49	I *should* advise acceptance	I *would* advise acceptance
49	I *should* if I were you	I *would* if I were you
49	I *should* like to go	I *would* like to go
89	I was *at home* today	I was *home* today
89	He was *at home* when I called	He was *to home* when I called
89	He came *into* the office	He came *in* the office
90	a coat *of any color*	*any color* coat
90	It is *of no use* to complain	It is *no use* to complain
93	died *of* fever	died *from* fever
93	Your book is different *from* mine	Your book is different *than* mine
97	*unless* she shows more interest	*without* she shows more interest
95	Try *to* come	try *and* come
95	Be sure *to* get your badge	Be sure *and* get your badge
90	*Where* is the ledger?	*Where* is the ledger *at?*
90	*Where* are we?	*Where* are we *at?*
90	*Why* did you do that?	*What* did you do that *for?*
90	*Why* are we waiting?	*What* are we waiting *for?*
90	The book fell *off* the desk	The book fell *off of* the desk
90	The branch broke *off* the tree	The branch broke *off of* the tree
89	Divide the money *among* us *three*	Divide the money *between* us *three*

Page	*Always say:*	*Do not say:*
89	Divide the money *between* us *two*	Divide the money *among* us *two*
90	No one could *have* done better	No one could *of* done better
90	You must *have* made a mistake	You must *of* made a mistake
90	I should *have* gone	I would *of* went
77	This pencil is the *better* of the *two*	This pencil is the *best* of the two
77	This pencil is the *best* of the *three*	This pencil is the *better* of the three
77	Which is the *quicker*, writing or wiring?	Which is the *quickest*, writing or wiring?
52, 77	Whether you or I *am* the *stronger*	Whether you or I *are* the *strongest*
78	This suit is *preferable*	This suit is *more preferable*
78	a *more nearly perfect* model	a *more perfect* model
79	This copy is *as clear as that, if not clearer*	This is as clear a copy *if not clearer than* that
80	George is larger than *any other boy* in his class	George is larger than *any boy* in his class
97	I do not doubt *that* you can pay	I do not doubt *but what* you can pay
66	*That* machine is broken	*That there* machine is broken
66	*This* grade is better	*This here* grade is better
66	He *has gone*	He *has done gone*
71	Has he *gone?*	Has he *gone yet?*
79	a mile *farther*	a mile *further*
78	*further* remarks	*farther* remarks
79	We can go *farther* on this road	We can go *further* on this road
79	We can go *further* into the report	We can go *farther* into the report

Page	*Always say:*	*Do not say:*
13	two *sons*-in-law	two son-in-*laws*
45	It looks as *though* the manager *were* to blame	It looks as *if* the manager *was* to blame
45	*Though* Jones was slow, he was faithful	*If* Jones was slow he was faithful
80, 21	not *so* old as I	not *as* old as *me*
80, 21	No one else is *so* well known as he	No one else is *as* well known as he
98	*provided* you pay cash	*providing* you pay cash
64	*an* honest man	*a* honest man
64	*an* hour	*a* hour
83	*No sooner* had we gone than he came	*Scarcely* had we gone than he came
83	a *healthful* climate	a *healthy* climate
84	*wholesome* food	*healthy* food
85	*somewhat* tired	*some* tired
84	Your remarks made me *angry*	Your remarks made me *mad*
84	*very* busy	*real* busy
86	a *profitable* business	a *nice* business
86	*likely* to fail	*liable* to fail
84	I *became angry*	I *got mad*
58	Loss of sleep *affects* one's health	Loss of sleep *effects* one's health
58	The manager *effected* two changes	The manager *affected* two changes
74	Smith looked *well*	Smith looked *good*
74	Smith looked *ill*	Smith looked *bad*
61	Carelessness *irritated* him	Carelessness *aggravated* him
62	*Teach* me the rule	*Learn* me the rule
62	*Mend* my shoes	*Fix* my shoes
62	*Adjust* the hood cover	*Fix* the hood cover

Page	*Always say:*	*Do not say:*
60	I *suspect* I made a mistake	I *expect* I made a mistake
59	I *intend* to go	I *calculate* to go
	I should as *lief* do it as not	I would as *leave* do it as not
72	The note was *satisfactorily* drawn	The note was drawn *satisfactory*
73	William writes *well*	William writes *good*
74	*almost* always on time	*most* always on time
73	The music sounds *sweet*	The music sounds *sweetly*
72	They *did* the work *easily*	They *done* the work *easy*
72	He spoke *gently*	He spoke *gentle*
80, 84	Smith is *not nearly so* successful as Brown	Smith is *nowheres near as* successful as Brown
80, 84	*not nearly so* accurate	*nowhere near as* accurate
72	He looked *queer*	He looked *queerly*
72	He acted *queerly*	He acted *queer*
76	*More than* ten answered	*Over* ten answered
75	*several* suits	*quite a few* suits
81	*fewer* customers	*less* customers
65	*this kind* of *building*	*these kind* of *buildings*
65	*that* sort	*those* sort
9	three *years* ago	three *year* ago
9	seven *bushels* of wheat	seven *bushel* of wheat
9	They walked ten *miles*	They walked ten *mile*
69, 150	I *had only* five dollars	I *only had* five dollars
69, 150	George bought *almost the entire stock*	George *almost bought* the entire stock
52	Brown, with his assistants, *is* working	Brown, with his assistants, *are* working
52	Brown and his assistants *are* working	Brown and his assistants *is* working
29	The jury *finds* for the plaintiff	The jury *find* for the plaintiff
29	The jury *were* divided in their opinions	The jury *was* divided in their opinions

Page	*Always say:*	*Do not say:*
53	Ten dollars *is* too much	Ten dollars *are* too much
54	The number in the box *is* ten	The number in the box *are* ten
54	A number of letters *were* written	A number of letters *was* written
55	Part of the goods *has* been shipped	Part of the goods *have* been shipped
55	One of the girls *was* mistaken	One of the girls *were* mistaken
53	A hundred dollars *was* lost	A hundred dollars *were* lost
53	A hundred books *were* lost	A hundred books *was* lost
57	I *haven't* been there	I *haint* been there
57	I *have* none	I *ain't got* none
35, 57	I *have not seen* it	I *ain't saw* it
57	I *am not* going	I *ain't* going
57	I *haven't* had it	I *ain't* had it
57	Why *aren't* you?	Why *ain't* you?
57	They *aren't* coming	They *ain't* coming
57	*I'm not*	I *ain't*
57	*He's not* or *he isn't*	*He ain't*
57	He *hasn't*	He *haint*
57	*She's not* or she *isn't*	She *ain't*
57	There *are* none	They *ain't* none
36	A question *had arisen*	A question *had arose*
36	The noise *awoke* me	The noise *woke* me *up*
36	We *were* there	We *was* there
36	They *were* coming	They *was* coming
36	I *have been* there before	I *been* there before
46	If I *were* you	If I *was* you
46	If it *were* true but it isn't	If it *was* true but it isn't
46	If it *was* true and it was	If it *were* true and it was
46	I wish he *were* here but he's not	I wish he *was* here but he's not
46	We wish it *were* possible	We wish it *was* possible

Page	*Always say:*	*Do not say:*
36	You *were*	You *was*
100	There *are* many kinds of books	There *is* many kinds of books
36	He *had borne* the blame patiently	He *had bore* the blame patiently
36	They were *beaten*	They were *beat*
36	We *were* there	We *was* there
36	They *were* coming	They *was* coming
	I *have been* there before	I *been* there before
45	If I *were* you	If I *was* you
45	If it *were* true but it isn't	If it *was* true but it isn't
45	If it *was* true and it was	If it *were* true and it was
46	I wish he *were* here but he's not	I wish he *was* here but he's not
46	We wish it *were* possible	We wish it *was* possible
36	You *were*	You *was*
100	There *are* many kinds of books	There *is* many kinds of books
36	He *had borne* the blame patiently	He *had bore* the blame patiently
36	They were *beaten*	They were *beat*
36	They *began* drilling	They *begun* drilling
36	We *had begun* our work	We *had began* our work
36	Smith *began* his speech	Smith *begun* his speech
36	The sale *had begun* on Monday	The sale *had began* on Monday
36	I had *bid* two dollars	I had *bidden* two dollars
36	He *bade* us come early	He *bid* us come early
36	He *had bidden* farewell	He *had bid* farewell
36	He *bade* us farewell	He *bid* us farewell
36	The acid *had bitten* deep	The acid *had bit* deep
36, 90	The paper *blew* out the window	The paper *blowed* out *of* the window
36	The wind *had blown* hard	The wind *had blew* hard

Page	*Always say:*	*Do not say:*
36	He *broke* his promise	He *broken* his promise
36	He *had broken* the knife	He *had broke* the knife
36	The water pipes *had burst*	The water pipes *had bursted* (*busted*)
36	He *burst* the bag	He *busted* the bag
36	They *have chosen* Williams	They *have chose* Williams
36	He *came* early	He *come* early
36	He *has come* again	He *has came* again
36	You *have come* punctually	You *have came* punctually
36	He *dived* ahead	He *dove* ahead
36	He *did* it	He *done* it
36	I *did* the work	I *done* the work
36	I *have done* better	I *have did* better
56	He *doesn't* come often	He *don't* come often
56	She *doesn't* write well	She *don't* write well
56	It *doesn't* cost much	It *don't* cost much
36	He *drew* a plan	He *drawed* a plan
36	He *drew* his salary	He *drawed* his salary
36	He *has drawn* the water	He *has drawed* the water
36	The chimney *has drawn* well	The chimney *has drawed* (or *drew*) well
36	I *drank* the water	I *drunk* the water
36	I *have drunk* the water	I *have drank* the water
36	The man *drank* poison	The man *drunk* poison
36	The man *had drunk* poison	The man *had drank* poison
37	He *had driven* ten miles	He *had drove* ten miles
37	We *have eaten* together frequently	We *have ate* together frequently
37	We *ate* together yesterday	We *eat* together yesterday
37	The market *had fallen* two points	The market *had fell* two points

Page	*Always say:*	*Do not say:*
37	The spring has *flowed* constantly	The spring has *flown* constantly
37	The airplane had *flown* over the city	The airplane had *flew* over the city
37	I *have forgotten* the message	I *have forgot* the message
37	He *forbade* us to go	He *forbid* us to go
37	He *has forbidden* the purchase	He *has forbid* the purchase
37	He *forgave* the offender	He *forgive* the offender
37	The ice cream had been *frozen*	The ice cream had been *froze*
37	He was half *frozen*	He was half *froze*
37	I *have gone*	I *have went*
37	He *had gone*	He *had went*
37	We *had gone*	We *had went*
37	They *had gone*	They *had went*
37	The wheat *grew* rank	The wheat *growed* rank
37	The bank balance *had grown* slowly	The bank balance *had grew* slowly
37	The murderer was *hanged*	The murderer was *hung*
37	The picture was *hung*	The picture was *hanged*
37	He *had hidden* his treasure	He *had hid* his treasure
37	I *knew* that was right	I *knowed* that was right
37	I *had known* it a long time	I *had knowed* (or *knew*) it a long time
37	I *knew* him at school	I *knowed* him at school
43	I *had laid* the book down	I *had lain* the book down
43	He *had lain* down	He *had laid* down
43	The letter *had lain* on my desk	The letter *had laid* on my desk
43	You may *lie* down	You may *lay* down
43	I *lay* down at ten	I *laid* down at ten

Page	*Always say:*	*Do not say:*
44	*Let* me do it	*Leave* me do it
44	*Let* me alone; don't touch me	*Leave* me alone; don't touch me
38	He *pleaded* for more time	He *plead* for more time
38	He *had ridden* ten miles	He *had rode* ten miles
38	They *rang* the bell	They *rung* the bell
38	The bell *was rung*	The bell *was rang*
38	I *rang* up the sale	I *rung* up the sale
42, 44	Prices *had risen* steadily	Prices *had raised* (or *rose*)
42, 44	Wages *rose*	Wages *raised* (or *went up*)
42, 44	Brown *arose* from his seat	Brown *raised* from his seat
42, 44	John *had risen* from the couch	John *had raised* (or *rose*) from the couch
38	He *ran* three blocks	He *run* three blocks
38	They *ran* a cash store	They *run* a cash store
38	Our supply *ran* out	Our supply *run* out
38	He *had run* all the way	He *had ran* all the way
38	They *have run* grave risks	They *have ran* grave risks
38	I *saw* him	I *seen* him
38	He *saw* them	He *seen* them
38	I *have seen* them	I *have saw* them
38	They *have seen* them	They *have saw* them
42, 43	I *set* the child down	I *sat* the child down
42, 43	I *sat* down	I *set* down
42, 43	*Set* the bucket on the table	*Sit* the bucket on the table
42, 43	I *have set* down the figures	I *have sat* down the figures
42, 43	I *will sit* in the armchair	I *will set* in the arm chair
42, 43	I *sat* in it all morning	I *set* in it all morning
42, 43	I *have sat* in it every day	I *have set* in it every day
38	They *have shaken* the tree	They *have shook* the tree

Page	*Always say:*	*Do not say:*
38	The sun *had shone* all day	The sun *had shined* all day
38	The light *shone* through the mist	The light *shined* through the mist
38	I *have shown* you today's model	I *have showed* you today's model
38	He *shrank* from the task	He *shrunk* from the task
38	The cloth *had shrunk*	The cloth *had shrank*
38	He *sang* at his work	He *sung* at his work
38	He *had sung* at the concert	He *had sang* at the concert
38	It *sank* immediately	It *sunk* immediately
38	They *had sunk* the ship	They *had sank* the ship
38	He *had spoken* clearly	He *had spoke* clearly
38	The man *sprang* up quickly	The man *sprung* up quickly
38	The barrel *had sprung* a leak	The barrel *had sprang* a leak
38	He *had stolen* a watch	He *had stole* a watch
38	He had been *struck* by a street car	He had been *stricken* by a street car
38	He had been *stricken* with paralysis	He had been *struck* with paralysis
38	He had been conscience *stricken*	He had been conscience *struck*
38	They *strove* for the highest award	They *strived* for the highest award
38	They *had striven* for it for three years	They *had strove* for it for three years
38	He *had sworn*	He *had swore*
38	They *have sworn*	They *have swore*
38	The river *had swollen*	The river *had swelled*
38	He *swam* across the river	He *swum* across the river
38	He *had swum* it many times	He *had swam* it many times

Page	*Always say:*	*Do not say:*
38	I *took* the new one	I *taken* the new one
38	I *have taken* the order	I *have took* the order
38	He *had torn* the check	He *had tore* the check
38	She *had woven* a rug	She had *wove* a rug
38	They *had written*	They *had wrote*
152, 153	Upon receiving your instructions *we shipped* the hose	Upon receiving your instructions the hose *were shipped*
152, 153	Flying over the city *he saw* the burning factory	Flying over the city the burning factory *was seen*
152, 153	Going over to the desk, *I wrote* a telegram	Going over to the desk, a telegram *was written*
150	your *letter*	your *esteemed favor*
156	I *enclose*	I *hand you herewith*
156	I *enctose*	I *enclose herewith*
156	*the* shoes	*said* shoes
156	*I hope it* will reach you	*hoping same* will reach you
18	*with reference* to your order	*relative* to your order
157	*I* do not believe	*the writer* does not believe

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INDEX

INDEX

A, an, the, 2, 64
Capitalization in titles or subjects, 138
A person, 28
Abbreviations, 139, 141–144
Capitalization of names of states, 142; names of months, 143; commercial, 143–144
Ability, capacity, 14
Absolute phrase, 119
Abundance, 53
Accommodate with, accommodate to, 91–94
Accordingly, 121
Accused of, accused by, 91–94
Ad, abbreviation, 110
Adapt from, adapt to, 91–94
Adapted for, 91–94
Addendum, 9
Address, words of, 118; inside address, 129
Addressing envelope, 128
Adjectival clause, 103
Adjectives, 2–3, 64–88, 138
Descriptive, 2; limiting, 3; *this, that*, 65–66; compound adjectives, 66–68; placing of, 69–71; double negative, 69–71; confusion of adjectives and adverbs, 72–76; comparison of, 77–80; similar adjectives and adverbs, 81–88; proper, 138
Adjectives and adverbs, 64–88
Commonly confused, 73–76, 81–88
Admittance, admission, 15
Adverbial clause, 104
Adverbs, introductory, 115
General discussion, 64–88
Interrogative, 3
Advise, 157
Advise, inform, 58
Affect, effect, 58–59
Again, 95
Ages, how expressed, 135
Aggravate, irritate, exasperate, 61–62
Agree to, agree with, agree upon, 91–94
Agreeable, nice, 86
Agreement, 51–57
All over, 76
All ready, already, 71, 75
All right, 75
Almost, 69
Almost, most, 74
Also, 52, 95, 182
Alumna, 10
Alumnus, 9
Among, between, 89–90
An, 2, 64
Analysis, 10
And, 51, 95, 113, 121, 147, 148, 182
And also, 29
And oblige, 159
Angry, mad, 84
Angry at, angry with, 91–94
Antecedent, 55
Anybody, 28
Anyone, 28
Appear, 72
Apostrophe, 8, 11–14
Formation of plurals, 8; formation of possessives, 11–14
Appellations, popular, 137
Apt, likely, liable, 86–87
Argument order, 179–181
Statement and illustration, 179–180; effect and cause, 180; statement and contrast, 180; statement and figure of speech,

180; general statement and detail, 180–181; cause and effect, 181
Articles, 2, 64
As, 21, 96, 124
As—as, 80, 95
As follows, 122
As if, 21, 96
As long as, since, 98
As well as, 29, 52
Assets, 9
At, 89; superfluous, 90
At hand, etc., 157
At last, 121
At least, 121
Attend to, attend upon, 92–94
Attended by, attended with, 92–94
Audience, spectators, 15
Auxiliary verb, 2
Awfully, 75

Bad, badly, 74–75
Balance, rest, remainder, 15–16
Be, 24–25, 31, 72
Become, 72
Beg to say, etc., 156
Beset by, beset with, 92–94
Beside, besides, 89–90
Between, among, 89–90
Bills, 131–132
Both — and, 51
Building, abbreviation of, 141
Business English, 1
But, 95, 106, 121, 147, 148, 182
But not, 29
But what, 97

Calculate, intend, 59
Can, 50
Cannot, but, 98
Capacity, ability, 14
Capitalization, 136–140
In writing an order, 132; abbreviations, 139; in sales letters, 139–140
Cause and effect, 181
Checks, 131
Clauses
Defined, 6; classes, 6, 103–105, 114; relative, 103; adjectival, 103–104; adverbial, 103–104; noun, 104–105; modifying, 116–117
Clearness
Sentence, 151–155; paragraph, 177–183; whole composition, 193–196
Climax, 186
C. O. D., 110
Collective noun, 52–53
Colon, 122–123
Come, 34
Comma, 111–120
Omission of words, 111; compound sentence, 113; subordinate clause, 114; introductory participial phrase, 115; modifying clause, 116; parenthetical expressions, 118; words in apposition, 118; words of address, 118; intermediate expressions, 119; short quotations, 120; words or phrases contrasted, 120
Commercial abbreviations, 143–144
Commercial forms, 131–134
Committee, 52–53
Common errors of speech, 200
Communication, letter, 16
Communicate to, communicate with, 92
Company, abbreviation of, 141
Comparative degree, 77
Compare to, compare with, 92
Comparison of adjectives and adverbs, 77–80
Complete predicate, 99
Complete subject, 99
Complex sentence, 103–105
Complimentary close, 130
Compound adjective, 66–68
Compound noun, 8, 12–13
Compound numerals, 66
Compound object, 20
Compound predicate, 102, 107

Compound pronoun, 2, 26–29
Compound sentence, 106–108, 113
Compound subject, 19–20, 102, 107
Condition contrary to fact, 45–46
Confide in, confide to, 93
Confusion of adjectives and adverbs, 72–76, 81–88
Conjunctions, 3
  Correct usage, 95–97; 182–183; subordinate, 104–105; coördinate, 106; aid to clearness, 182–183
Consequently, 121, 183
Consist in, consist of, 92–93
Contents noted, 157
Continual, continuous, 81
Contractions, 56–57
Contrary to fact, condition, 45–46
Contrasted words or phrases, 120
Coördinate conjunction, 106
Correct word (*See* good usage drills)
Correlatives, 95–96
Could, 50
Council, counsel, 16
Courtesy, 20, 52
Crisis, 10

Daily drill, 200
Dash, 123–125, 164
  Explanatory expressions, 124; parenthetical expressions, 124; summarizing phrase or clause, 124–125
Days of the week, 136
Dates, how expressed, 135
Datum, 10
Daily Drills (*See* good usage drills)
Degree of comparison, 77
Deity, names of, 138
Demonstrative pronoun, 2
Dependent clause, 6
Descriptive adjective, 3
Descriptive order, 179
Descriptive paragraph, 169
Desirous of, 75
Die of, 93
Differ from, differ with, 93
Discommode, incommode, 59
Discover, invent, 59–60
Double negative, 69–71
Dozen, plural of, 9
Drafts, punctuation of, 133
Drills (*See* good usage drills)

Each, 28
Effect, affect, 58–59
Effect and cause, 180
Either, 28, 95
Either — or, 51, 95, 96, 148
Else's, 13
Emphasis
  Sentence, 156–165; paragraph, 184–189; whole composition, 197–199
Envelope addressing, 128
Erratum, 10
Errors of speech, 200
Esteemed favor, 157
Ethics, 9
Every, 28
Everybody, 28
Everyone, 28
Exasperate, irritate, aggravate, 61–62
Except, without, unless, 97
Exclamation point, 111
Expect, suspect, guess, 60
Explanatory expressions, 124

Fall, 37, 73
Father, capitalization of, 138
Favor, esteemed favor, etc., 157
Feel, 73
Few, less, 81–82
Figures, 8, 135
First, second, third, 141, 183
Fix, mend, 62
f. o. b., 110
For, 31
For example, 118, 122, 124
For illustration, 122
For instance, 122, 124
Forbid, 34, 37
Foreign plurals, 9–10

Formation of plurals, 7–10
General rule, 7; nouns ending in *f*, 7; nouns ending in *o*, 7; nouns ending in *y*, 7; compound nouns, 8; letters, figures, 8; titles, 8; *dozen, score, yoke*, 9; foreign plurals, 9–10; *goods, assets, proceeds*, 9; sciences, 9; nouns ending in *is*, 9
Formation of possessives, 11–13
Former, latter, 79
Fractions, 53
Free on board, f. o. b., 110

General statement and detail, 180–181
Gerund, 4–5
Give, 34
Good usage drills, 200
Good, well, 73
Goods, 9
Graduate, was graduated, 60–61
Grand, splendid, 82–83
Grow, 73
Guess, expect, suspect, 60

Hain't, 57
Hand you, 156
Hardly, 69–70
Hardly, scarcely, 83
Healthy, healthful, 83–84
Hence, 121, 183
Herewith, 157
Holidays, festivals, 136
Hoping, trusting, etc., 159
However, 118, 121, 182
Hyphen, 66–68, 127

I, O, capitalized, 139
Idiom, 44
If, 45, 104
If, whether, 98
Implicate, involve, 61
In, 89
In addition to, 52, 95, 181
In fact, 121
In, into, at, 89–90
In the following manner, 122–123
In truth, 118
Incommode, discommode, 59
Indeed, 118, 121
Indefinite pronouns, 2
Independent clause, 6
Infinitive, 4–5, 24–25, 115
Inform, advise, 58
Inside address, 130
Inst., ult., prox., 157
Intend, calculate, 59
Interjection, 111
Intermediate expression, 119
Interrogative adverb, 3
Interrogative pronoun, 3
Introductory adverb, 115
Introductory participial phrase, 115
Initials of proper names, 139
Invent, discover, 59–60
Involve, 61
I-point of view, 175–176
Irregular comparison, 79
Irritate, aggravate, exasperate, 61–62
It as an introductory word, 101–102

Kind, 65
Know as, know that, 98

Language, specific, 186–188
Latter, former, 79
Lay, lie, 42–44
Learn, teach, 62
Leave, let, 44
Let, 44
Letter
Parts of a, 8, 129–131
Letter, communication, 16
Letter writing, importance of, 190–191
Less, few, 81
Liable, likely, apt, 86–87
Lie, lay, 42–43
Like, 21, 96
Likely, 86–87
Limiting adjective, 2
Look, 72
Loose sentence, 163–164

Mad, angry, 84
May, 50
Mathematics, 9
Mend, fix, 62
Merely, 69
Might, 50
Minor details of a paragraph, 174
Modifying clauses, 116–117
Monsieur, 10
More, most, 77–78
More nearly, 78
Moreover, 95, 181
Most, almost, 74
Mother, capitalization of, 138

Namely, 118, 124
Names of the Deity, 138
Names of the months, abbreviations of, 143
Names of public buildings, capitalized, 137
Names of states, abbreviations of, 142
Names of streets, rivers, etc., 137
Names of townships, counties, states, etc., 138
Narrative order, 178–179
Narrative paragraph, 168–169
Near, nearly, 74
Nearly, 69, 74
Necessary first step, 1
Negative, double, 69–71
Neglect, negligence, 16–17
Neither, 28, 95, 106, 113, 121
Neither — nor, 51–52, 95, 148
Never, 69–70
Nevertheless, 118, 121, 182
Nice, agreeable, 86
No, 69–70
No doubt, 118
Nobody, 28
Nominative forms, 19–20, 24–25
None, 28, 69–70
Nor, 51, 95, 106, 113, 121
Not, 69–70
Not only — but also, 95–96
Notes, how written, 133
Nothing, 69–70
Noun clauses, 104–105
Nouns, 1, 7–18
  Plural, 7–10; compound, 8, 12–13; possessive, 11–13; commonly confused, 14–18; collective, 52–53; proper, 136, 139
Nowhere, nowheres, 69, 84
Number, 7–10
  Agreement of verbs and subjects, 51–57
Numbers, abbreviations of, 141
Numbers
  How to express, 134–135; and signs beginning sentences, 135
Numerals, compound, 66

Object, 3, 19–20
  Compound, 20
Objective forms, 19–20
Of, unnecessary use of, 90–91
Of course, 118, 121
Office style, 131
Offices of army and navy, capitalization of, 137
Omission of necessary prepositions, 90
Omission of words, 111
On, upon, 90
Once, 71
One, 29
Only, 69, 151–152
Or, 51, 95, 106, 113, 121, 148
Order, 178–181
  Narrative, 178–179; descriptive, 179; argument, 179–181
Other, 80
Our Mr. ——, 158
Outlines, 192–197

Pair, 9
Paragraph, 166–189
  Defined, 166; topic sentence, 166–167; single-sentence, 167; narrative, 168–169; descriptive, 169; short, 169–170; plan of, 170–171, 178–182; unity in, 173–

176; clearness in, 177–183; emphasis in, 184–189
Parenthesis, 10
Parenthetical words, phrases, clauses, 118–119, 124, 127
Part from, part with, 93–95
Participle, 4–5, 36–37, 109, 115, 153–154
Parts of a letter, punctuation of, 123, 129–131
Parts of speech, 1–98
Defined, 1–6
Party, person, 17
Past participle, 36–39
Past tense, 34
Per cent, degrees, how expressed, 110, 135
Per centum, abbreviation of, 110, 141
Perhaps, 118
Period, 109–110
Periodic sentence, 163–164
Person, party, 17
Personal pronouns, 2, 19–29
Phenomenon, 10
Phrases
Verb, 2; defined, 6; introductory participial, 115; absolute, 119
Physics, 9
Placing of adjectives and adverbs, 69, 152–153
Plan of paragraph, 170–171, 178–182
Plenty, 53
Plurals, formation of, 7–10; avoid use of singular terms for, 9
Point of view, 175
Politeness, rule of, 20, 52
Popular appellations, 137
Positive degree, 77
Possessive, formation of, 11–13; modifying verbals, 13; following *than* and *as*, 21
Predicate, 5, 99–102
Complete, 99; simple, 99; compound, 102
Prepositions, 3, 20–21, 89–94
Discriminating in use of, 89 ff.; erroneously omitted, 90
Present tense, 34
Previous, previously, 74
Principal clause, 6, 103
Principal parts of verbs, 34–39
Principal, principle, 17
Proceeds, 9
Pronouns, 2, 19–33
Demonstrative, 2; indefinite, 2; interrogative, 2; reciprocal, 2; personal, 2, 19–30; compound, 2, 26–29; relative, 2, 30–33, 55–56, 103; possessive, 13; nominative forms, 19–20; objective forms, 19–20; following *than* and *as*, 21; superfluous 23; incorrect forms, 27; reference, 153
Proper adjective, 138
Proper noun, 136, 139
Propose, purpose, 62–63
Providing, 98
Prox., inst., ult., 157
Punctuation, 109–134
Parts of a letter, 128–131; special cases in, 128–135; commercial forms, 131–133; how to express numbers, 134–135
Purpose, 62–63

Question mark, 110–111
Quite a, 75
Quotation marks, 125–127
Quotations, 120, 125–127

Railroad, abbreviation of, 141
Railway, abbreviation of, 141
Raise, 42–44
Real, very, 84–85
Receipts, manner of writing, 132–133
Recent date, 158
Reciprocal pronouns, 2
Reference pronouns, 153
Relations, relatives, 18
Relative clauses, 103
Relative pronouns, 2, 32–35, 55–56, 103
Remainder, 15–16

Remonstrate against, remonstrate with, 93–94
Repetition, 160
Respectfully, respectively, 85
Rest, balance, remainder, 15–16
Right word (*See* good usage drills)
Rise, 42–44
Run, 34

Said, 158
Sales letters, abbreviations in, 139–140
Salutation, 8, 123, 130
Same, 158
Scarcely, 69–70
Scarcely, hardly, 83
Score, 9
See, 34–35, 38
See as, see that, 98
Seem, 72
Semicolon, 121–122
Sentences, 5, 99–165
  Simple, 99–102; complex, 103–105; compound, 106–108; unity of, 145–150; clearness in, 151–155; emphasis in, 156–165; periodic, 163–164
Set, sit, 42–44
Shall, will, 47–50
Short paragraph in business, 169–172
Short quotations, 120
Should, would, 49–50
Signs, 8
Since, 98
Similar adjectives and adverbs distinguished, 81–88
  Simple predicate, 99
  Simple subject, 99
Single-sentence paragraph, 167
Sit, set, 42–43
Smell, 73
So, 121, 183
So — as, 80, 95–96
Some, somewhat, 85–86
Somebody, 28
Somebody's else, 13
Someone, 28
Something, 75
Somewhat, 75
Sort, 65
Special cases in punctuation, 129–136
Special use of *were*, 45–46
Specific language, 186–188
Spectators, audience, 15
Splendid, grand, 82–83
State, 158
Statement, and illustration, 179–180; and figure of speech, 180; and contrast, 180
Statue, statute, 18
Step, necessary first, 1
Still, 182
Street names, capitalized, 137
Street numbers, how expressed, 135
Subject, 5, 19–20, 26–29, 99–102
  Compound, 19–20, 102, 107; complete, 99
Subjects, singular, group of, 27–29
Subordinate clauses, 6, 103–105, 114
Subordinate conjunctions, 104–105
Such as, 124
Summarizing phrase, 124; word, 154
Sums of money, how expressed, 135
Superintendent, abbreviation of, 141
Superlative degree, 77
Suspect, expect, guess, 60
Synopsis, 10

Taste, 73
Taste for, taste of, 94
Teach, learn, 62
Tense, 34–41
Than, 21, 77–78
That, 30, 65, 183
That is, 124
That there, 66
The, 3, 64
Then
  Abuse of, 71; in compound sentences, 121
There is, there are, 100
Therefore, 118, 183
These, those, 65–66, 122
They is, there is, 100

This, 65, 122–123
This here, 65
This kind, these kinds, 65–66
This, that, 65–66
Though — yet, 95–96
Thus, 122
Time of day, how expressed, 135
Titles, 8, 127, 137–138
To be, followed by pronouns or nouns, 24–25
To have been, 24–25
Together with, 29
Topic sentence, 166–167
Trade names, capitalization of, 139
Transposing words, phrases, and clauses, 161–162
Troublesome compounds, 26–29
Troublesome verbs, 34–44
Trusting, hoping, etc., 159
Turn, 73

Ult., prox., inst., 157
Unity
  Sentence, 145–150; paragraph, 173–176; whole composition, 191–194
Unless, without, except, 97
Upon, on, 90
Usage (*See* good usage drills)

Variety, 53
Various, 75
Verbals, 4–5, 24–25, 115
  Gerunds, 4–5; infinitives, 4–5, 24–25; participles, 4–5, 24–25; modifiers of, 13
Verb phrase, 2
Verbs, 2, 4–6, 34–63
  Auxiliary, 2; principal parts of, 34–39; troublesome, 34–44; special use of *were*, 45–46; *shall* and *will*, 47–50; agreement, 51–57; commonly confused, 58–63
Very, real, 84–85

We, I, the writer, 158
Well, good, 73
Were, special use of, 45–46
What, 30
What for, 90
Whether, 98
Whether — or, 95–96
Which, 30
Who, whose, whom, 30
Whoever, whomever, 32–33
Whole composition, 190–199
Whom, 30–33
Why, 71
Will, shall, 47–50
With, 52
Without, except, unless, 97
Words followed by special prepositions, 91–94
Words of address, 118
Words or phrases contrasted, 120
Worn-out expressions, 156–159
Would, should, 49–50
Writer, the, 158

Yet, 71, 121, 150, 182
Yoke, 9
You-point of view, 175–176
Yours, 159
Yrs., respy., 130